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## VOL. IV.

# UNIVERSAL
# GEOGRAPHY,

OR

## A DESCRIPTION

OF

## ALL THE PARTS OF THE WORLD,

**ON A NEW PLAN,**

ACCORDING TO THE GREAT NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE GLOBE;

ACCOMPANIED WITH

**Analytical, Synoptical, and Elementary Tables.**

---

By M. MALTE-BRUN.

---

IMPROVED BY THE ADDITION OF THE MOST RECENT INFORMATION, DERIVED FROM VARIOUS SOURCES.

---

**VOLUME IV.**

CONTAINING THE DESCRIPTION OF AFRICA AND ADJACENT ISLANDS.

Likewise additional matter, not contained in the European Edition, and Corrections.

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*Clerk of the District of Massachusetts.*

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# SYSTEM

OF

# UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

## BOOK LIX.

### AFRICA.

*A General View of this Division of the World and its Inhabitants.*

BEGINNING with the west of Asia, the ancient cradle of history, we have gone over the whole of that great continent to its eastern limits, which were unknown to the ancients. We then embarked on the Great Ocean, and visited the numerous and interesting islands of Oceanica, a part of the world entirely new, and which might be viewed as an immense archipelago annexed to Asia. Fronting Oceanica on the west, a vast peninsula goes off from the body of the Asiatic Continent. This peninsula forms likewise one of the great divisions of the world, and one which is particularly well characterized. AFRICA, on the description of which we are now to enter, will not present to us a new and unlooked for territory, where the European traveller, falling in with a numerous succession of feeble savage tribes, gives to his discoveries names borrowed from the recollections of his native country. Africa, the shores of which, our ships have been for three centuries in the habit of coasting, has been known to history for



Africa little known.

BOOK LIX.

3000 years. Yet, notwithstanding its ancient celebrity, and notwithstanding its vicinity to Europe, it still, in a great measure, eludes the examination of science. It was from the African shores that the Egyptian colonies, in the most remote times, brought to savage Europe the first germs of civilization. At the present day, Africa is the latest portion of the old world to receive from the hands of the Europeans the salutary yoke of legislation and of culture.

If Africa has remained so long inaccessible to the ambition of conquerors, to commercial enterprise, and to the curiosity of travellers, we shall find, in its physical form, the principal cause of its obscurity. A vast peninsula, 5000 miles in length, and nearly 4600 in breadth, presents, in an area of nearly 13,430,000 square miles, few long or easily navigated rivers. Its harbours and roadsteads seldom afford a safe retreat for vessels, and no gulf or inland sea opens the way to the interior of this mass of countries. The Mediterranean on the north, by which it is separated from Europe, and the Atlantic and Ethiopic Oceans, which encompass it on the west, form inconsiderable inequalities in the line of coast to which the name of gulfs is improperly given, viz. the Gulf of Guinea in the south, and that of the Syrtes in the north, both held in dread by navigators. The breadth of the continent, between the bottoms of these gulfs, is still 1800 miles. The coasts of Senegal and Guinea, indeed, present several mouths of rivers accompanied with islands; and were it not for the barbarous character of the people, these would be the most accessible parts of Africa. To the south, however, the continent resumes its usual appearance, and terminates in a mass of land without any deep windings. To the east a number of islands, and some mouths of rivers, seem to promise a readier access. The coast washed by the Indian Ocean lies low, like the opposite shores of Guinea, but we find only a short way in the interior the formidable terrace of arid mountains which forms the eastern extremity of the continent. In the north-east the Arabian Gulf separates Africa from

Seas and gulfs.

Asia, without breaking the gloomy uniformity of the African coast.

Promontories.

This large continent has its outline marked by four great promontories. Cape Serra in the north projects into the Mediterranean. Cape de Verd points due west into the American Sea. Cape Guardafui receives the first rays of the rising sun. The Cape of Good Hope makes a long excursion into the southern hemisphere. On three other remarkable points Africa comes close up to the rest of the old continent. In the north-west the narrow Strait of Gibraltar divides it from Europe. In the east Arabia is separated from it by the Strait of Babel-mandeb. In the north-east the low sandy Isthmus of Suez connects it with Asia.

Straits.

Isthmus.

Rivers.

In some parts excessively parched, in others marshy or flooded, the soil of Africa presents strange contrasts. At great mutual distances are some large and beneficent rivers, as the Nile in the north-east, the Senegal and Gambia in the west, the Zaire in the south-west, the Cuama on the east coast; and, in the centre, the mysterious Niger, which conceals its termination as the Nile used to conceal its origin. More frequently we find small and short streams, such as all the rest, with the exception of ten or twelve, almost all containing cataracts in their course, and presenting bars or sand banks at their mouths. In the interior, and even on the coast, there are great and lofty rocks, from which no torrents proceed; and table-lands watered by no streams, as the great desert of Zahara, and others of minor extent. At a greater distance are countries constantly impregnated with moisture, as those which contain the lake or marsh of Wangara, and the lake Maravi, and some temporary lakes occasioned by the rising of the rivers. These features constitute the hydrography of this part of the world.

Configuration of the mountains.

When we attend to the structure of the mountains, other singularities come into view.* Though Africa very proba-

* See the views of the celebrated M. Lacepede, in the Annales du Muséum d'Hist. Nat. vol. vi. p. 284.

BOOK LIX.

bly has mountains high enough to be covered with perennial snow even under the equator, that is, 16,000 feet in elevation. it is, in general, to be remarked, that the African chains are more distinguished for their breadth than for their height. If they reach a great elevation, it is by a gradual rise, and in a succession of terraces. Perhaps, we should not deviate far from truth if we were to venture the assertion, that the whole body of the African mountains forms one great plateau, presenting toward each coast a succession of terraces. This nucleus of the African continent seems to contain few long and high ranges in the interior, so that if the sea were to rise three or four miles above its present level, Africa, stript of all the low lands which line its shores, would perhaps appear almost a level island in the midst of the ocean.

Mountain chains.

None of the known chains of Africa are adverse to this view of its surface. Atlas, which lines nearly the whole of the north coast, is a series of five or six small chains, rising one behind another, and including many table lands. The "littoral chain of the Red Sea," or the Troglodytic Chain, resembles Atlas in its calcareous steeps, so imposing to the eye of the traveller, yet really of very moderate height. The Lupata Chain, "or the Spine of the world," which seems to reach from Cape Guardafui to the Cape of Good Hope in a direction not well known, contains the plateaus of Adel and Mocaranga; it terminates in the south in high and barren plains, called the Karros, and in steep mountains with flat summits, one of which has received the significant name of the Table Mountain. This chain seems then to resemble the preceding two. The rivers of Guinea descend in a series of cataracts, not in long and deep valleys. It is the usual character of calcareous mountains to be formed into terraces, and such seems to be the nature of the Kong mountains.

On the existence of a central chain.

There is just one fact which may be opposed to us with some appearance of reason. We are told that "a very high central chain crosses Africa from east to west, beginning at Cape Guardafui and ending about Cape Sierra

Leone: comprehending the Kong mountains and the Mountains of the Moon, which lie to the south of Abyssinia.' But the extension thus given by Major Rennel to the Mountains of the Moon, would not be inconsistent with the views now given. Africa would still be a plateau consisting of terraces; the plateau would only be cut in two by a sort of wall But we do not, by any means, admit the existence of that high central chain. It is true that the nucleus of mountains which gives origin to the rivers Senegal, the Gambia, the Mesurada, and the Joliba or Niger, gives off, among other branches, one which has an easterly direction, and which partly separates the basin of the Niger from the coast of Guinea. This is the chain called the Mountains of Kong, on the southern declivities of which rise the Rio-Volta and some other rivers of Guinea. But the learned Rennel has stretched his conjectures too far, in pretending to connect this chain to that of the Mountains of the Moon on the south of Abyssinia. May not these mountains be lost in the central plateau of south-eastern Africa? or, if they are extended to the west, may they not terminate about Cape Gonsalvo, opposite to St. Thomas's Island? The following facts render this supposition very probable.

Reasons against its existence.

At Darfoor, the south winds are the hottest and driest, and bring along with them clouds of dust. This shows that there is no high chain of mountains immediately to the south, near Darfoor. The Mountains of the Moon must be removed farther to the south and to the east, and the south winds of Darfoor must sweep over a sandy, though, perhaps, somewhat elevated plain.

The passages of Ptolemy and Leo Africanus, which seem to describe a central chain, prove nothing. The first of these authors mentions several detached mountains without saying any thing of their extent. Leo says that the inhabitants of Wangara cross very high mountains when they go in search of gold dust. But the position of these mountains is not defined any more than the country of Zegzeg, the inhabitants of which require large

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artificial fires to protect them from the cold.* Even Major Rennel thinks that the mountains last referred to must lie to the north of the Niger.

The prodigious numbers of slaves which come to Benin show that there is an open and easy communication with the interior. The slaves of the Ibbo nation perform a journey of seven months over forests and morasses.† It is even probable that, in the sixteenth century, the king of Benin was subject to the king of Ghana, a city situated on the Niger,‡ a circumstance which implies easy inland communications. Is it not also probable that the Niger, or some other river from the interior, flows into the most easterly corner of the Gulf of Guinea? Such large gulfs as this have generally some great river falling into their further extremity. The rivers which traverse Benin and Calabar seem to be arms of some great river. We are indeed told, that this appearance of great size is confined to the low lands immediately on the shore, but we have hitherto no accounts from any traveller who has actually ascended them, and the hypothesis has been advanced and plausibly supported, that the Niger terminates here.

Why has Africa few islands?

The principle which we have now defended is susceptible of some interesting applications. If Africa is one immense flat mountain, rising on all its sides by steps or terraces, we easily conceive that it will not give origin to such narrow pointed peninsulas, or such long chains of islands, as those by which other continents are terminated. These peninsulas and chains of islands are submarine prolongations of the mountain chains extended across the continents. In Africa nothing similar appears, excepting the Canary islands. The mountains lying parallel to the coast have scarcely any submarine continuation. A sea, clear of islands, washes a coast marked by an even, unnotched line. The great island of Madagascar, on the east, is not

* Leo Africanus, p. 329, de la Traduction de Jean Temporal.

† Oldendorp. See our account of Guinea, in the sequel.

‡ Barros, Dec. I. liv. 3, ch. 4.

a prolongation of the continent, but follows a direction parallel to that of the coast.

Plains and table lands.

If we turn our attention to the interior of Africa, the same principle makes its appearance in the vast plains which occupy the greater part of its extent. Some covered with sand and gravel, with a mixture of sea shells, and incrusted with crystallizations, look like the basins of evaporated seas. Such is the famous desert of Zahara, where the sands, moving like the waves of the ocean, are said to have sometimes swallowed up entire tribes. Others, of a marshy nature, and filled with stagnant lakes, emit effluvia the most destructive to human life, or breed disgusting reptiles, and formidable animals of huge size. Neither in the one nor the other do rivers find descent or outlet. They either terminate in lakes, or lose themselves beneath the sand. Many of the slender rivulets never unite to form permanent currents, but disappear with the rainy season, to which they owe their origin. Africa contains an infinite number of these torrents and rivers which never reach the sea. Some of them have a long course, and rival the greatest rivers in the world. Such is the Niger or Joliba, unless it has an outlet, as yet unknown, in the Gulf of Guinea. After it come the Bornou and the Kullah; the Misselad in Nigritia; and the Djedyd, in the Zab country, belonging the Algerine States. Many of these rivers must form lakes or small inland seas, probably equalling the sea of Aral. The heat which rapidly dries up the waters, the bibulous quality of the soil which absorbs them, and, still more, the absence of great inequalities, or extensive hollows, prevents the African table land from possessing another Caspian Sea.

Rivers without outlets.

Lake Maravi gives some reason to suppose that there may be a second Niger in the interior of Eastern Africa.

Periodical swellings of the rivers.

The other rivers of this continent, such as the Senegal, the Gambia, the Zaire, and the Orange river on the western shores, the Zambeze, or Cuama, and the Makadshec on the east coasts, and lastly the Nile, which surpasses the others, and which is the only one that runs north into the

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Mediterranean, all possess a character of resemblance depending partly on the climate of the torrid zone, and partly on the structure of the plateaus in the heart of Africa. One conspicuous character consists in the periodic swells, by which these rivers overflow the countries through which they pass, and particularly those by which their mouths are surrounded. These risings differ in nothing from the floods of our European streams, except in their regular annual return, in the large volume of water which they bring along with them, and the great quantity of mud which they deposit. It is well known that the rainy season, which, over the whole torrid zone, is synchronous with the vertical position of the sun, brings on almost continual drenching rains. The heavens, formerly burning like a flame, are transformed into a great atmospheric ocean. The copious waters which they pour down collect on the table lands of the interior, where they form immense sheets of water, or temporary lakes. When these lakes have reached a level high enough to overflow the boundaries of their basins, they suddenly send down into the rivers, previously much swollen, an enormous volume of water, impregnated with the soft earth over which it has for some time stagnated. Hence the momentary pauses and sudden renewals in the rise of the Nile. Hence the abundance of fertilizing slime, which would not be found so copious in the waters of rivers which owed their rise solely to the direct influence of the rains. These phenomena, simple in their origin, only astonish persons who have observed the effects without tracing their cause.

Climate.

The general climate of Africa is that of the torrid zone; more than three-fourths of this continent, (ten thirteenths at least) being situated betwixt the tropics. The great mass of heated air, incumbent on these hot regions has ready access to its northern and southern parts, situated in the zones called temperate, so that the portions of them adjoining the tropics are equally torrid with the regions actually intertropical. Nothing really moderates the heat and dryness of the African climate, except the annual

Temperature.

rains, the sea breezes, and the elevation of the surface. These three circumstances are sometimes united in a greater degree under the equator than in the temperate zones. Such parts of the interior of Guinea, Nigritia, or Abyssinia, as fall under this description, enjoy a temperature much less scorching and dry than the sandy deserts on the south of Mount Atlas, though the last are thirty degrees from the equator. It is not impossible that in the centre of Africa there may be lofty table-lands like that of Quito, or valleys like the valley of Cashmere, where, as in those two happy regions, spring holds an eternal reign.

There is another general cause which influences the climate of Africa less than might be expected. The greatest cold of the southern hemisphere is only apparent on the southern shores, and is confined to a very small portion of the year. The saline and arid character of the lands of the southern extremity resembles, in some measure, that of the coasts of Zaara and of Ajan.

Contrasts of fertility.

Nowhere do the empire of fertility and that of barrenness come into closer contact than in Africa. Some of its lands owe their fertility to high wooded mountains moderating the heat and dryness of the atmosphere. More frequently the fertile countries, bounded by vast deserts, form narrow stripes along the banks of the rivers, or alluvial plains situated at their place of exit. These last countries, generally contained between two branches of the river diverging to form a triangle, have, from their figure, received a name taken from Delta, the fourth letter of the Greek alphabet, which is a triangle. The term has been, by way of eminence, given to the flat island formed by the Nile in Lower Egypt. Another class of fertile lands owes its existence to springs, which here and there burst forth in the midst of deserts. These spots of verdure are called *Oases*. Even Strabo mentions them, when he says, "To the south of Atlas lies a vast desert of sand and stones, which, like the spotted skin of a panther, is here and there diversified by *oases;* that is to say, by fertile grounds, rising like islands in the midst of the ocean."

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It is to these contrasts that Africa owes her twofold reputation. This land of perpetual thirst, this arid nursery of lions,* as it was called by the ancients, was, at the same time, represented under the emblem of a woman crowned with ears of corn, or holding ears of corn in her hand † Although the character of high fertility belongs especially to the *Africa propria* of the ancients, that is, the present state of Tunis, it is certain that in this part of the world, wherever moisture is conjoined with heat, vegetation displays great vigour and magnificence. The human species find abundant aliment at a very insignificant expense of labour. The corn stalks bend under their load; the vine attains a colossal size; melons and pumpkins acquire enormous volume; millet and holcus, the grain which is most common over three-fourths of this continent, though badly cultivated, yield a return of two hundred fold; and the date tree, which is to the African what the cocoa nut and the bread fruit are in Oceanica, can withstand the fiery winds which assail it from the neighbouring deserts. The forests of Mount Atlas are equal to the finest of Italy and Spain. Those of the Cape boast of the silver leaved *Protea*, and some elegant trees. In the whole of Guinea, Senegambia, Congo, Nigritia, and the eastern coast, formerly denominated India, are to be found the same thick forests as in America. But in parts which are marshy or arid, sandy or rocky, that is, in one half of Africa, the natural vegetation presents a harsh and uncouth physiognomy. Scattered tufts of saline plants diversifying a plain which has no green sod to clothe its nakedness,—thorny shrubs, *Mimosas*, and *Acacias*, present impenetrable thickets. *Euphorbiæ*, *Cacti*, and arums, tire the eye with their stiff and pointed forms. The enormous baobab, and the shapeless dragon tree, are void of grace and majesty. The fruit of the theobroma, finding its way outward through the bark of the trunk, a bark of a blackened and scorched

General view of its vegetation.

* "Sitientes Afros."—Virgil. Leonum arida nutrix."

† Bochart, Canaan, I. ch. 25.

appearance, seems affected by the same power of solar heat which has impressed the most sombre hues on the skin of the negro.

Animals.

The animal kingdom presents still greater variety, and more originality. Africa possesses most of the animals of the old continent, and in some species possesses the most vigorous and the most beautiful varieties. Such are the horse of Barbary, the Cape buffalo, the Senegal mule, and the zebra, the pride of the asinine race. The African lion is the only lion worthy of the name. The elephant and the rhinoceros, though of less colossal dimensions than those of Asia, have more agility, and perhaps more ferocity; yet the African elephant is said to fly at the sight of that of Asia. Several very singular animal forms appear to be peculiar to this part of the world. The unwieldy hippopotamus inhabits the south, from the Cape of Good Hope, to Egypt, and to Senegal. The majestic giraffe, the prototype of the *Seraphim* which the Arabian mythology yoked in the chariot of the lord of thunder, roams from the Niger to the Orange River. The gazelle, or antelope genus, peoples Africa with numerous species and varieties, some lighter and handsomer than others, and perhaps all different from those of the table-land of Asia. Following the same principle, Africa, filled with monstrous apes and disgusting baboons, is probably deficient in many species of monkeys which seem reserved for Oceanica as the ourang-outang; or for America, as the sapajoo. The winged race of Africa is equally peculiar. The flamingo, in his scarlet robe, the paroquet, clad in emerald and sapphire hues, the aigretta, of elegant plumage, might have imparted sufficient interest to the descriptive pen of Vaillant, though he had added no imaginary birds. The ostrich is peculiar to Africa, as the cassowary is to Oceanica, and the rhea, or tooyoo, to South America; but, among the walking birds, or those which have no true wings, that of Africa is the largest and most perfect. We reserve for our special delineations other researches, which will confirm the old adage, "that Africa was always furnishing natural his-

Peculiar animal forms.

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tory with some new animal;"—researches which will give a probability to the existence of some extraordinary animals, celebrated in all the writings of antiquity, while modern criticism, perhaps too sceptical, has assigned them a place among the creations of fable.

The inconveniences and calamities occasioned by venomous or voracious reptiles, are not peculiar to Africa; the whole torrid zone has its serpents, its scorpions, its crocodiles, or other equivalent species. But nowhere else, except in New Holland, do the *termites* build so many destructive nests. The swarms of locusts of Asia are much less thick and extensive than those of Africa, where whole tribes of men use them as food.

To conclude our picture, we find the human species in this part of the world exhibited in a new light. The Africans seem to form three races which have long been distinct. The Moors are a handsome race, resembling in stature, physiognomy, and hair, the best formed nations of Europe and Western Asia, though darkened by the influence of climate. To this race belong the Berbers or Kabyls, and the other remains of the ancient Numidians and Getulæ. They bear a great similarity to the Arabians, from whom they received in the seventh century numerous colonies. The Copts, Nubians, and Abyssinians, cannot well be considered as originally a distinct race, being probably sprung from a mixture of Asiatic and African nations. The second race is that of the Negroes, whose general characteristics are universally known. It occupies all the centre, and all the west from Senegal to Cape Negros, and has found its way into Nubia and Egypt. The third race is that of the Caffres, which occupies all the east coast, distinguished from the negroes by a less obtuse facial angle, a convex forehead, and a high nose; but approaching to it in the thick lips, the curled and almost woolly hair, and a complexion varying from a yellow brown to a shining black.

Man. Three African races.

Besides these great races, Africa contains some tribes of a character quite peculiar, which they derive either from

some unknown original, or from the influence of climate. The Hottentots are the most conspicuous example, but we shall find some others in the course of our particular details.

Languages of Africa.

The languages of Africa must, according to M. de Seetzen, amount to 100 or 150. They differ from one another in a most striking manner, and have so few features of mutual resemblance, that the attempts made to classify them have proved fruitless. The Berber language has indeed been found to prevail from Morocco to Egypt. The three negro languages of Mandingo on the upper Senegal, of Amina on the Gold coast, of Congo on the Congo coast, seem to be extensively diffused: and the same may be said of the Caffre Bejooanas. But the general character of Africa in this respect is still that of a multitude of confined idioms which seem to comprehend many sounds scarcely articulate, some that are very strange, sometimes howlings, sometimes hisses, contrived in imitation of the cries of animals, or intended as watchwords, to distinguish hostile tribes from one another. This fact perplexes those who consider the unity of the human race as a demonstrated historic truth; but it appears to us that in Africa and every where else, true history, going back to the most remote times, finds the human species, like the plants and animals, disseminated over the surface of the globe, and divided into numberless small tribes or families, each speaking a peculiar idiom, imperfect and often singularly distorted. The artificial combination of these primitive jargons has given origin to the regular languages which probably began with the formation of cities.

Progress of civilization.

Civilization, which has furnished man with abstract and general ideas, has followed in Africa a singular progress, dictated by the climate and by the character of the most numerous indigenous race. This progress may be distributed into the following epochs.

Primitive state.

Living in abundance, but separated from one another by deserts; surrounded by copious and excellent food of spontaneous growth, but encountering prodigious obstacles

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in all their attempts at artificial culture; enjoying a climate which required no clothing to protect them from cold, nor cover to shelter them from rain, the Negro (called the Ethiopian by the ancients,) and probably also the Caffre, or Troglodyte, never felt that stimulus of necessity which creates industry and reflection. Enjoying a wild happiness of condition, they satisfied the demands of sense, and scarcely possessed any notion of an intellectual world. But they felt the presence of an invisible power. They looked for its residence in the tree which gave them food, in the rock which shaded them, in the serpent which they dreaded, and even in the monkeys and parrots which flitted around them. Some believed that a piece of wood, or a polished stone, was the seat of a supernatural power; they were delighted to think that their deities could be carried along with them in all their motions. This system, which is called *fetichism*, and which is the rudest form of *pantheism*, seems common to every climate and to every race: but it prevailed to the exclusion of every other in Africa, and especially among the negroes.* These superstitions were merely ridiculous. Vengeance and brutality, however, gave birth to others of a horrible and atrocious nature. The prisoner of war from an adjoining tribe was sacrificed on the tombs of those against whom he had fought. Believing in the necessary connection between moral powers and visible objects, these barbarians were persuaded that by devouring the bodies of their enemies, they became imbued with the courage of the deceased. Cannibalism, arising from the rites of the hideous altar, and at first limited to these rites, was soon converted into a capricious taste—a demand of luxurious appetite. Vanquished tribes thought themselves fortunate in being reduced to slavery, instead of being devoured; but their masters sold their persons like cattle. In the meantime, the Berbers or Moors, proud of a little superiority over these degraded beings, hunted them down like wild beasts,

Fetichism.

* See afterwards our account of Nigritia.

and wrought them like domestic animals. Such may be considered as the primitive state of the Africans, and it still in some measure subsists.

Theocracies of Meroë, Thebes, &c.

Afterwards came some beneficent impostors, who altered the face of things. Several dynasties of royal high priests erected temples at Meroë, at Thebes, and at Memphis, which became the *asyla* of peace, the focus of arts, and the resort of trade. The savage, attracted by curiosity, and enslaved by superstition, bowed down before the statue of a god with a dog's head, or the beak of a bird, emblems which formed improvements on his rude amulet. At the command of the servants of the gods, a multitude which scarcely possessed cabins of palm trunks for themselves, cut the granite into columns, carved hieroglyphics on the porphyry rocks, and by persevering labour completed monuments which stood undecayed for ages. Nor were works of utility neglected. The sacred water of the Nile, confined by dykes, and distributed by canals, fertilized the plains which had previously been overrun with reeds and rushes. Caravans, protected by the name of the deities, ascended the Nile, and penetrated to the remote valleys of Ethiopia, collecting gold and ivory, spreading every where the germs of new religions, new laws, and new manners.

Internal revolutions of Egypt.

At Memphis, Thebes, and Meroë, the caste of warriors rebelled against the pontiffs. The gentle illusions of theocracy were succeeded by revolutions, wars, and agitations, at the despotic court of the Pharaohs. Notwithstanding events of this kind, Egypt long continued a great and flourishing empire, but was less fortunate as to any influence on the civilization of the rest of Africa.

The Carthaginians.

Carthage had founded another empire in the west. Her hardy sailors, and her enterprizing merchants, reached as far as Cape Blanco by sea, and her inland travellers reached the Niger by land; but the only means which they possessed for subjugating nations were their armed force, and the attractions of certain articles of commerce. Intimately connected with the Barbary, or Moorish people, whose

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talents for war they brought into activity by raising among them light troops for their own service, they exercised only an indirect influence on the Ethiopians or the negroes. This race of men, left to themselves, confined their exertions to the picking up of such simple aliments as the earth afforded ready prepared. The government of petty despotic patriarchs gave place to more extended monarchies. In the mysterious associations of Guinea, the spirit of the priests of Meroë was seen to revive. The most essential change which the civil constitution of Africa underwent, was the distinction established between free-men and slaves. That distinction existed among the Greeks and the Romans with features equally odious and inhuman as in Africa. But, while Christianity abolished it in Europe, in Africa it has been perpetuated.

The Romans.

Beyond the limits of their own empire, the Romans had no direct relations with any people except the inhabitants of Fezzan and of Nubia, and, at a very late period, with Abyssinia, or the kingdom of Axum. Nor did Christianity succeed in shedding her light on the west, the centre, and the south of Africa. Her benefits, which were spread over the north, disappeared under the effects of disastrous wars. To Mahometanism was reserved the task of effecting a change in African civilization. The fanatic Arab, mounted on the active dromedary, or embarked in light vessels, flew to plant the standard of his prophet on the banks of the Senegal, and on the shores of Sofala. Never did a people possess a union of qualities better adapted for conquering and preserving the empire of Africa. Among the Mauritanians and Numidians they found brothers and natural friends; an identity of manners, food, and a genial climate. The fanatic mussulman spirit astonished and subdued the ardent imaginations of the Africans; the simplicity of the creed suited their limited intellect, and easily connected itself with the superstition of fetichism, and the ideas which these people entertained of magic and enchantments. Africa, and especially the *oäses* of the Great Desert, soon furnished the new religion with its most zeal-

Christianity.

The Arabs and Mahometanism.

ous defenders. Civil slavery and despotic government suffered no change, except that the *Maraboots*, or Mussulman priests, and the *Sherifs*, or descendants of the prophet, formed, in some of the states, a species of aristocracy. Cannibalism alone was of course abolished, and that was a real benefit which humanity received at the hand of Islamism.* One event favoured, for a moment, the civilization of the Moors. The expulsion of those of their number who had ruled in Spain peopled Barbary, and even the *Oäses* of the great desert, with a more industrious and better informed race than the rest of the Mahometans. But, unhappily for Africa, a handful of Turkish adventurers, vying with one another in ferocity and ignorance, established themselves on the coast of Barbary, subdued the Moors, and founded the barbarous governments of Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, forming a deadly barrier, more efficient than Mahometanism itself, in separating Africa from the civilized world.

The Turks.

The voyages of the Portuguese, and the slave trade, have subsequently opened new communications between Africa and the west of Europe. These countries were found, as they still are, distracted by perpetual war, a war so much the more deplorable, because, being confined to a system of cruel robbery, without the spirit of territorial conquest, it does not give birth to those great empires which sometimes admit a species of civilization. A lengthened observation of the character of the Africans made us acquainted with their virtues, their docile dispositions, and their versatility in imitating our arts. Sufficient proof is obtained that there is nothing in their moral nature which condemns them to perpetual barbarism.† Europe, unfortunately occupied with the East and West Indies, has paid

Modern state.

* M. de Hammer, Mémoire sur l'influence du Mahométisme, dans les Mines de l'Orient, et dans les Annales des Voyages.

† See the interesting work of M. Grégoire, Bishop of Blois, sur la Littérature des Negres.

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comparatively little attention to a country nearer home, and perhaps more wealthy than those others. Hence our relations with the African coasts have been long confined to that traffic in human beings which is reprobated both by religion and philosophy, and only justified by a fallacious reference to adventitious circumstances, from which this traffic appears to operate as a corrective of greater disorders and inhumanity. These circumstances are many of them the creation of this infamous traffic itself, which debases and brutalizes the miserable natives, as has been amply proved by a comparison between the state of the same countries before and since the late partial abolition, and under the temporary revivals of the same disgraceful inhumanity to which individual avarice has, in some places, given rise. That the utter abolition of the slave trade will ever be the cause of the revival of cannibalism and human sacrifices, as some have ventured to predict, is impossible. Moral practices, as well as physical population, do not, in Africa, depend on causes different from those which regulate them in France or England. The introduction of knowledge and enlightened habits is the great engine by which we hope to see Africa made to hold a respectable rank in the scale of human society. The colonies established on its shores, and the efforts made to open a legitimate and beneficial trade between Africa and the civilized world, will, it is hoped, excite, in the minds of its inhabitants, a due esteem for regular laws and civilized manners, and induce them either to emulate them by efforts of their own, or to submit to receive from others these benefits in exchange for the miseries of a wretched independence.

# BOOK LX.

## EGYPT.

### PART I.

*A Physical Description of this Country.*



EGYPT is the connecting link between Africa and the civilized world. This country, unique in its nature and in its historical records, deserves a more minute description than the other countries of Africa. Egypt consists entirely of a vale, watered by the Nile, by which it is in part formed; and confined, on the right and left, by a barren expanse of deserts. The physical picture of this country, therefore, will be introduced with an account of the Nile, whose bounties render Egypt independent of all foreign supplies, and independent of the rains of heaven.

The Nile; its sources, and course.

The Nile, the largest river of the old world, still conceals its true sources from the research of science. At least, scarcely any thing more of them is known to us now than was known in the time of Eratosthenes. That learned librarian of Alexandria distinguished three principal branches of the Nile. The most easterly was the Tacazzé of the moderns, which flowed down the north side of the table land of Abyssinia. The second known branch, or the Blue River, first makes a circuit on the table land of Abyssinia, and then flows down through the plains of Sen-

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naar, or of Fungi. The sources of this Blue River were found and described by the Jesuits, Paez and Tellez, two centuries before the pretended discovery of Bruce. These two rivers are tributaries to the White river, the Bahr-el-Abiad, which is the true Nile, and the sources of which must lie in the countries to the south of Darfoor. These countries are, according to the report of a Negro, named *Dar-el-Abiad.* The mountains from which it issues are called Dyre and Tegla; and probably form part of the Al Quamar mountains, or the mountains of the Moon. As it seems proved that travellers have passed by water from Tombuctoo to Cairo, the Niger must fall into the Nile, and be really the Nile itself; or there must be intermediate rivers, forming between the Nile and Niger a communication resembling that which was found by Humboldt, between the Orinoco and the Amazons. The first hypothesis might seem to be supported by a vague romantic passage of Pliny the naturalist, quoted in our History of Geography.* The other hypothesis is the only one which can reconcile the accounts of persons who have travelled by the way of Tombuctoo, with the positive testimony of Mr. Browne, according to which the rivers Misselad, and Bar-Koolla, run from south to north. This fact which is generally admitted, does not allow us to suppose any other communication between the Nile and the Niger, than one which may be formed by canals which, like those of Casiquiari in Guiana, might wind along a table land where the sources of the Misselad and Bar-Koolla are at a short distance from each other, and from those of the Nile. Perhaps some of our readers will content themselves with supposing that the sources of all these rivers are sufficiently near to communicate by means of temporary lakes during the rainy season.

Communication of the Nile and Niger.

Cataracts of the Nile.

The true Nile, whatever may be its origin, receives two large rivers from Abyssinia, and then forms an extensive circuit in the country of Dongola by turning to the south-

* See Book IX. of the History of Geography.

west. At three different places a barrier of mountains threatens to interrupt its course, and at each place the barrier is surmounted. The second cataract in Turkish Nubia, is the most violent, and most un-navigable. The third is at Syené, or Assooan, and introduces the Nile into Upper Egypt. The height of this cataract, singularly exaggerated by some travellers, varies according to the season, and is generally about four or five feet.

Valley of the Nile.

From Syené to Cairo, the river flows along a valley about eight miles broad, between two mountain ridges, one of which extends to the Red Sea, and the other terminates in the deserts of ancient Libya. The river occupies the middle of the valley, as far as the strait called Gibbel-Silsili. This space, about forty miles long, has very little arable land on its banks. It contains some islands which from their low level easily admit of irrigation.

At the mouth of the Gibbel-Silsili,* the Nile runs along the right side of the valley, which in several places has the appearance of a steep line of rock cut into peaks, while the ridge of the hills on the left side, is always accessible by a slope of various acclivity. These last mountains begin near the town of Sioot, and go down towards Faioom, diverging gradually to the west, so that between them and the cultivated valley there is a desert space, becoming gradually wider, and which in several places is bordered on the valley side by a line of sandy downs lying nearly south and north.

Parallel line of mountains.

The mountains which confine the basin of the Nile in Upper Egypt are intersected by defiles which on one side lead to the shores of the Red Sea, and on the other to the *Oäses*. These narrow passes might be habitable, since the winter rains maintain for a time a degree of vegetation, and form springs which the Arabs use for themselves and their flocks.

* Girard, Mem. sur l'Egypte, t. III. p. 13.

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The stripe of desert land which generally extends along each side of the valley, parallel to the course of the Nile, (and which must not be confounded with the barren ocean of sand which lies on each side of Egypt,) now contains two very distinct kinds of land; the one immediately at the bottom of the mountain, consists of sand and round pebbles; the other, composed of light drifting sand, covers an extent of ground formerly arable. If a section of the valley is made by a plane perpendicular to its direction, the surface will be observed to decline from the margins of the river to the bottom of the hills, a circumstance also remarked on the banks of the Mississippi, the Po, part of the Borysthenes, and some other rivers.

Level.

Near Beni-sooef, the valley of the Nile, already much widened on the west, has on that side an opening through which a view is obtained of the fertile plains of Faioom. These plains form properly a sort of table land, separated from the surrounding mountains on the north and west by a wide valley, of which a certain proportion, always laid under water, forms what the inhabitants call *Birket-él-Kûroon*.

Basin of Faioom.

Near Cairo, the chains which limit the valley of the Nile diverge on both sides. The one, under the name of Jibbel-al-Nairon, runs north-west towards the Mediterranean: the other, called Jibbel-al-Attaka, runs straight east of Suez.

Plains of the Delta.

In front of these chains a vast plain extends, composed of sands covered with the mud of the Nile. At the place called Batu-el-Bahara, the river divides into two branches; the one of which flowing to Rosetta, and the other to Damietta, contain between them the present Delta; but this triangular piece of insulated land was in former times larger, being bounded on the east by the Pelusian branch, which is now choked up with sand or converted into marshy pools. On the west it was bounded by the Canopic branch, which is now partly confounded with the canal of Alexandria, and partly lost in lake Etko. But the correspondence of the level of the surface

with that of the present Delta, and its depression as compared with that of the adjoining desert, together with its greater verdure and fertility, still mark the limits of the ancient Delta, although irregular encroachments are made by shifting banks of drifting sand, which are at present on the increase.

Mouths.

The different *bogaz*, or mouths of this great river, have often changed their position, and are still changing it; a circumstance which has occasioned long discussions among geographers. The following are the most established results. The seven mouths of the Nile, known to the ancients, were, 1. the *Canopic* mouth, corresponding to the present mouth of lake Etko; or according to others, that of the lake of Aboukir, or Maadée; but it is probable, that at one time, it had communications with the sea at both of these places. In that case it is probable that these lakes existed nearly in their present state, except that the Nile flowed through them, and gave them a large proportion of fresh water, instead of the sea water with which they are now filled. We cannot believe that the bottoms of these lakes were formerly higher, as we know of no natural process by which surfaces of such breadth could have been subsequently excavated. 2. The *Bolbitine* mouth at Rosetta. 3. The *Sebenitic* mouth, probably the opening into the present lake Burlos. 4. The *Phatnitic*, or *Bucolic* at Damietta. 5. The *Mendesian*, which is lost in the lake Menzaleh, the mouth of which is represented by that of Dibéh. 6. The *Tanitic*, or *Saitic*, which seems to leave some traces of its termination to the east of lake Menzaleh, under the modern appellation of Omm-Faredjé. The branch of the Nile which conveyed its waters to the sea corresponds to the canal of Moez, which now loses itself in the lake. 7. The *Pelusiac* mouth seems to be represented by what is now the most easterly mouth of lake Menzaleh, where the ruins of Pelusium are still visible.*

* Mem. sur l'Egypte, I. 165. Compare Dubois-Aymé, Mémoires sur les Bouches-du-Nil. Livourne, 1812.

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Depth and rapidity.

Navigation.

The depth and rapidity of the Nile differ in different places, and at different seasons of the year. In its ordinary state, this river carries no vessels exceeding sixty tons burden, from its mouth to the cataracts. The bogaz of Damietta is seven or eight feet deep when the waters are low. That of Rosetta does not exceed four or five. When the waters are high, each of them has forty-one feet more, and caravels of twenty-four guns can sail up to Cairo.* The navigation is facilitated in a singular degree during the floods: for, while the stream carries the vessels from the cataracts to the bogaz with great rapidity, the strong northerly winds allow them to ascend the river, by means of set sails, with equal rapidity. These winds are constant for nine months of the year, and, when the river is low, and the stream less rapid, vessels cannot often make their way downward even with their sails furled, the wind upward being more powerful than the stream, even under these circumstances. The regular practice at such times is, to row down with the stream during the night when the wind has subsided, and to halt somewhere during the day; while the vessels that are upward bound sail by day and halt by night. The passage from Cairo to the Mediterranean, occupies eight or ten days. When both voyages are practicable, it is an interesting sight to see the numerous boats passing one another on their way. The bogazes are difficult to navigate even during high Nile. The shifting sand-banks create unforeseen dangers over the whole extent of bottom which is liable to them. The cataracts are sometimes passed with the aid of a little address, combined with courage, the lowest cataract, in particular, being rather a rapid than a waterfall.†

Inundations of the Nile.

The celebrated plains of Egypt would not be the abode of perpetual fertility were it not for the swellings of the

* Description de l'Egypte, vol. I. Mémoire de M. Lepère, sur le canal des deux mers, sect. II. paragr. 5 et 6.

† Sicard, Norden. See particularly Belzoni, vol. II. p. 119. second edition.

river, which both impart to them the requisite moisture, and cover them with fertilizing mud. We now know for certain what the ancients obscurely concluded,* and what was asserted by Agatharcides, Diodorus, Abdolatif, and the Abyssinian envoy, Hadgi Michael,† that the heavy annual rains between the tropics are the sole cause of these floods, common to all the rivers of the torrid zone, and which, in low situations such as Egypt, occasion inundations.

The rise of the Nile commences with the summer solstice. The river attains its greatest height at the autumnal equinox, continues stationary for some days, then diminishes at a less rapid rate than it rose. At the winter solstice it is very low, but some water still remains in the large canals. At this period the lands are put under culture. The soil is covered with a fresh layer of slime of greater or less thickness.

The fertility and general prosperity of Egypt depend much on a certain medium in the height to which the Nile rises in its inundations; too little rise or too much is nearly equally hurtful. In September, 1813, M. Belzoni witnessed a deplorable scene, from the Nile having risen three feet and a half above the highest mark left by the former inundation.‡ It was productive of one of the greatest calamities that had occurred in the memory of any one living. Rising with uncommon rapidity, it carried off several villages, and some hundreds of their inhabitants. Expecting an unusual rise, in consequence of the scarcity of water during the preceding season, the inhabitants had erected, as usual, fences of earth and reeds round their villages, to keep the water from their houses, but its force baffled their efforts, and the rapid stream carried before it men, women, children, cattle, and corn, in a moment. In Up-

* Meiners, Histoire du Nil, dans ses Œuvres Philosophiques, p. 30.

† Quoted by Wansleben in an unpublished account of a journey in Egypt. Collection de Paulus, I. 21.

‡ Belzoni's Narrative, vol. II. p. 25—29.

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per Egypt, the villages are not raised above the level even of the ordinary inundations, but depend for their safety on artificial fences. When a village is in danger, the boats are busily employed in removing the corn and the people, the former being first attended to, as more important to the Pasha; and, if the water breaks in before the inhabitants have been placed in security, their only resource is to climb the palm trees, and there wait till a boat comes to their rescue. Those who have it in their power repair with their property to a higher ground, others escape mounted on buffaloes or cows, or keep themselves afloat on logs of wood. Mr. Belzoni, in the course of his travels, came to the village of Agalta, between Luxor and Cairo, which he found four feet lower than the surface of the surrounding water; the caimakan, or guard, deploring his imminent danger of being swept away from a place in which honour and duty obliged him to remain. Some poor refugees were placed on spots of ground very little raised above the river, which had still twelve days to rise before reaching its utmost height, at which it remained stationary for other twelve.

Mud of the Nile.

The analysis of the mud of the Nile gives nearly one half of argillaceous earth, about one-fourth of carbonate of lime, the remainder consisting of water, oxide of iron, and carbonate of magnesia.* On the very banks of the Nile, the mud is mixed with much sand, which it loses in proportion as it is carried farther from the river, so that at a certain distance it consists almost of pure argil. This mud is employed in several arts in Egypt. It is formed into excellent bricks, and vessels of divers forms. It enters into the manufacture of tobacco pipes. Glass manufacturers employ it in the construction of their furnaces, and the country people cover their houses with it. This mud contains principles favourable to vegetation, and the cultivators consider it as sufficient manure.

* Mém sur l'Egypt, I. p. 348, 382.

The salubrity of the water of the Nile, so much extolled among the ancients, is acknowledged also by the moderns under certain limitations. Being very light, it may deserve in this respect the character given of it by Maillet, that it is among other waters what Champagne is among wines. If Mahomet had tasted it, the Egyptians say, he would have supplicated heaven for a terrestrial immortality, to be enabled to enjoy it to eternity.* It is said to be laxative, owing to certain neutral salts contained in it. But during the three summer months when it is in some places almost stagnant, it requires to be filtered, or otherwise clarified before it can be used with safety. During the increase of the Nile, it first acquires a green colour, sometimes pretty deep. After thirty or forty days, this is succeeded by a brownish red. These changes are probably owing to the augmentations which it receives from different temporary lakes in succession, or from the waters formed by a succession of rains on the different table lands of the interior of Africa.

Qualities of the Nile water.

The mountains on the west side of the Nile seem to consist of limestone containing many shells. In those of the east side, serpentine and granite seem to form the highest ridges.

Nature of the rocks.

The stone of which the pyramid of Cheops, near Djizeh is built, is a fine grained carbonate of lime, of a light brown colour, and easily cut. The red granite, or, rather syenite, of the ancient monuments, and which forms the coating of the pyramid called *Mycerinus*, is believed to be the *Pyropæcylon* of Pliny. In the neighbourhood of the pyramids are found the Ethiopian jasper, the quartz rock with amphibole, and the Egyptian pebble, which is a quartzose agate coarsely veined. From the old specimens preserved at Velletri, in Cardinal Borgia's museum, a Danish mineralogist, M. Wad, has published an essay on the fossils of Egypt. These specimens are, red granite, white granite,

Specimen of obelisks.

* Maillet, Description de l'Egypte, I. p. 16. Mém. sur l'Egypte, II. p. 35.

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mixed with hornblende, (a character which distinguishes syenite from the proper granites) green feldspar, and black hornblende. The porphyry seems to be formed of petrosilex, with crystals of feldspar. There is likewise found among them a small specimen of a dark brown micaceous schistus. The others are limestone, feldspar, breccia, serpentine, potstone, marble with veins of silvery mica, swinestone, jaspers of all varieties, the topaz or chrysolite of the ancients, amethyst, rock-crystal, chalcedony, onyx, heliotrope, obsidian, and lapis lazuli, but no emeralds. The greater part of the specimens are basalt, the Ethiopian stone of Herodotus and of Strabo.*

Mountains of Cosseir.

The valley leading to Cosseir is covered with a sand partly calcareous, partly quartzose. The mountains are of limestone and sandstone. As we approach to Cosseir we find three sorts of mountains. The first consist of rocks of granite, of a small fine grain. The second chain comprehends rocks of breccia, or puddingstone, of a particular sort, known by the name of *breccià di verde.*† To the mountains of breccia, for a space of thirty miles, a substance of slaty texture succeeds, which seems to be of cotemporaneous formation with the breccias, since they are connected by gradual transitions, and contain rounded masses of the same substance.

At the fountains of El-Aoosh-Lambageh, there is a leading chain of schistose mountains presenting in their composition rock-crystal, and steatitic rocks: but at a distance of eight miles from Cosseir the mountains suddenly change their character; a great part of them are limestone, or alabaster in strata, almost always lying north and south. Here are found the debris of the *ostrea diluviana.* Among the mountains considered by cosmogonists as of later formation, are found *schisti,* and indistinct porphyries, with grains of feldspar. The bottom of the valley, covered with immense rocky fragments, presents a num-

* Wad, fossil Ægypt, Musée Borgiani.

† Mém. sur l'Ægypt, III. p. 240.

berless variety of materials, sometimes serpentines, sometimes compound rocks in which the predominating ingredients are actinote, schisti, gneiss, porphyrics, granites; sometimes it consists of a particular kind of steatite containing nodules of schistose spar. There is besides a new and peculiar substance in mineralogy, which is also found in several spots of the desert of Sinai, and which resembles thallite, or the green schorl of Dauphiné. It is not found in a separate state, but forms part of the granites, the porphyries, and other rocks.* Towards the valley of Suez, the mountains are calcareous, and in several places composed of concreted shells.

Mountains of Suez.

In the valley of the wilderness,† sea-salt is found in thin compact layers supported by strata of gypsum. In many of the surrounding deserts this salt is very common, sometimes crystallized under the sand, sometimes on the surface.

Saline depositions.

In Upper Egypt, near Edfoo, the mountains are composed of slate, sandstone, white and rose-coloured quartz, and brown pebbles, mixed with white cornelians.‡ Near the ruins of Silsilis, the granite rocks contain cornelian, jasper, and serpentine. A little higher in Upper Egypt, the rocks are granite alternated with decomposed sandstone, forming on the surface a friable crust, giving the appearance of a ruin.

Mountains of Upper Egypt.

But the most curious country undoubtedly, is that which is comprehended in the Bahr-bèla-Maié (the river without water) and the bason of the Natron lakes. These two valleys are parallel to each other. The mountain of Natron skirts the whole length of the valley of that name. That mountain contains none of the rocks which are found scattered about in the valley, such as quartz, jasper, and petrosilex.§

Valley of the Natron lakes.

* Mém. sur l'Egypte, III. p. 255.

† Vallée d'Egarement.

‡ Denon, t. II. p. 49.

§ Denon, p. 150. 195. 208.

◊ Andreossy, Mém. sur la vallée des lacs Natron, dans la descrip. de l'Egypte, vol. I.

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There is a series of six lakes in the direction of the valley. Their banks and their waters are covered with crystallizations, both of muriate of soda, or sea salt, and of natron, or carbonate of soda. When a volume of water contains both of these salts, the muriate of soda is the first to crystallize; and the carbonate of soda is then deposited in a separate layer. Sometimes the two crystallizations seem to choose separate localities in insulated parts of the same lake.*

This curious valley is only inhabited by Greek monks. Their four convents are at once their fortresses and their prisons. They subsist on a small quantity of leguminous seeds. The vegetation in these valleys has a wild and dreary aspect. The palms are mere bushes, and bear no fruit.

Caravans come to this place in quest of natron. According to Andreossi, the farming of the tax on this substance, which is in demand for divers manufactures, was on the same footing with the old gabelle on salt in France.

Valley of the dry river.

The valley parallel to that of Natron is called Bahr-bèla-Maié, or "the Dry River." Separated from the valley of Natron by a small ridge of heights, it has for the most part a breadth of eight miles. In the sand with which the surface is every where covered, trunks of trees have been found in a state of complete petrifaction, and a vertebral bone of a large fish. The same stones are met with here as in the valley of Natron. Some of the learned have thought that the stones have been brought to the place by a branch of the Nile which once passed in this direction. The valley of Bahr-bèla-Maié, is said to join Faïoom on the south, and to terminate in the Mediterranean in the north.

Changes of the soil.

These countries have undoubtedly undergone violent revolutions, of a date prior to the present constitution of the globe. Their modern changes have, in extent and importance, been much exaggerated by authors attached to

* Berthollet, Journ. de Physique; messidor, an VIII. p. 5, &c.

system. M. Reynier judiciously remarks that the diminution of arable land must have been of older date than any historical records carry us. "Several spots which the ancients have delineated on the borders of the deserts are still recognized; the canal of Joseph, though neglected for ages, is not in any part obstructed." Reynier only found one encroachment of the sands on the cultivated land, which was well authenticated, "it is in the province of Djizeh, near the village of Ooardan, where the sands have advanced to the banks of the Nile, and occupy a league of land."*

Others say that the canal of Joseph is partly choked up with accumulations of slime. This canal is eighty-four miles long. It was employed to conduct the water into the district of Faioom, and into lake Mœris, the modern Birket-el-Karoon. It afforded the double advantage of watering completely the lands of Faioom, and of disposing of a superabundance of water when the overflow of the Nile was extraordinary and excessive. It is probable that the canal dignified with the name of Joseph, like many other remarkable works, was executed by order of king Mœris. The waters then filled the basin of the lake Birket-el-Karoon, which received the name of the prince who effected this great change. We shall thus reconcile the different positions assigned to lake Mœris by Herodotus, Diodorus and Strabo, and give a reason why the ancients say that the lake was of artificial formation, while the Birket-el-Karoon gives no evidence of any such operation.† Lake Mœris.

The maritime districts of Egypt present several lakes, or rather lagoons, which in the lapse of ages sometimes suffer diminution, sometimes enlargement. To the south of Alexandria is lake Mareotis. For many ages this lake Maritime lakes.

* Mém. sur l'Egypt, t. IV. p. 6.

† Description de l'Egypte: Antiquités; Memoires, vol. I. Memoire sur le lac Mœris, par M. Jomard, Compare Pococke, D'Anville, Gibert, &c.

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was dried up; for though the bed is lower than the surface of the ocean, there is not sufficient rain to keep up any lake in that country in opposition to the force of perpetual evaporation. But in 1801, the English, in order to circumscribe more effectually the communications which the French army in the city of Alexandria maintained with the surrounding country, cut across the walls of the old canal which had formed a dyke, separating this low ground from lake Maadie, or the lake of Aboukir on the east. In consequence of this easy operation, the water had a sudden fall of six feet, and the lake of Mareotis which had so long disappeared, and the site of which had been occupied partly by salt marshes, partly by cultivated lands, and even villages, resumed its ancient extent. The inhabitants of the villages were obliged to fly, and bewail, from a distance, the annihilation of their gardens and their dwellings. This modern inundation from the sea indeed is much more extensive than the ancient lake Mareotis, occupying, probably, four times its extent. The lake of Aboukir has a physical history somewhat similar, having been for two centuries in a dry state, till in 1778, an irruption of the sea broke through the embankment by which it had been previously protected. Lake Etko, to the south-east, has a similar character, communicating with the sea by a narrow mouth, which would admit of being closed up, so as to convert the lake into a dry or a marshy salt plain.

Lake Menzaleh.

The map of lake Menzaleh, constructed by General Andreossi, furnishes important corrections to the description given of Egypt by M. d'Anville. This lake is formed by the junction of large gulfs, and bounded on the north by a long narrow stripe of low land, separating it from the sea. The two gulfs are partially separated by the peninsula of Menzaleh, at the extremity of which are found the islands of Matharyéh, the only ones in this lake that are habitable. D'Anville has also given too much breadth to the northern coast of this lake; and the measurements lately taken differ from this by more than 25,000 yards. Lake Menzaleh communicates with the sea only by two navigable

mouths, those of Ybeh and of Omfaredgié, which are the Mendesian and Tanitic mouths of the ancients.* The breadth from the mouth of Ybeh to that of Pelusium is 95,920 yards.

Canals.

It is impossible to fix the number of canals appropriated to the distribution of the waters of the river to the different parts of the country. When we find that one traveller gives 6000 to Upper Egypt alone,† while another allows only about ninety large canals, viz. forty for Upper Egypt, twenty-eight for the Delta, eleven for the eastern, and thirteen for the western provinces,‡ we perceive that a discrepancy so great must arise from the manner of reckoning the canals. One concerns himself only with large ones which he knows to be kept up, and the opening of which is fixed by the regulations of the country. Another extends his views to canals ramifying from these, which vary in number from one year to another. The Mameluke Beys applied to their private use the funds destined to the support of these public works, on which the fertility of Egypt depends. Many canals were even abandoned by these barbarians, who thus destroyed the sources of their own revenues. The most famous of these artificial rivers is the canal of Joseph, or the Calideh-Menhi, which is 110 miles long, with a breadth of from 50 to 300 feet. One part of this canal seems to correspond to the ancient canal of Oxyrynchus, which Strabo in sailing along mistook for the Nile itself.§

Another canal, which, however, was intended solely for navigation, viz. that of Suez, has furnished matter for many discussions; these we shall consider in the next Book, in which we shall treat expressly of every thing relating

* Mém. sur l'Egypte, t. I. p. 165, with a map.

† Maillet, &c.

‡ Tourtechot, Voyage en Egypte, trad. All. p. 423. Sicard, Nouv. Mém. des Mission. VII. p. 115.

§ Norden, p. 259, (in German.) D'Anville, Mém. sur l'Egypte, p. 166. Hartmann, Egypten, p. 1019.

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to the celebrated isthmus which connects Africa with Asia.

Climate.

The climate and fertility of Egypt have given rise to an equal number of discrepant opinions among authors. One French traveller finds in this country a terrestrial paradise;* another assures us that it is a most unpleasant country to reside in.† Observers of a more composed turn of mind show us how to reduce to their proper value the descriptions of these two volatile writers. The aspect of Egypt undergoes periodical changes with the seasons. In our winter months, when nature is for us dead, she seems to carry life into these climates, and the verdure of Egypt's enamelled meadows is then delightful to the eye. The air is perfumed with the odours of the flowers of orange and citron trees, and numerous shrubs. The flocks overspreading the plain, add animation to the landscape.—Egypt now forms one delightful garden, though somewhat monotonous in its character. On all hands it presents nothing but a plain bounded by whitish mountains, and diversified here and there with clumps of palms. In the opposite season this same country exhibits nothing but a brown soil, either miry, or dry, hard, and dusty; immense fields laid under water, and vast spaces unoccupied and void of culture, plains in which the only objects to be seen are date trees; camels and buffaloes led by miserable peasants, naked and sun-burnt, wrinkled and lean; a scorching sun, a cloudless sky, and constant winds varying in force. It is not, therefore, surprising, that travellers have differed in their physical delineations of this country.‡

Varied aspect.

Causes of the scarcity of rain.

"A long valley," says M. Reynier,§ "encircled with hills and mountains, presents no point in which the surface has sufficient elevation to attract and detain the clouds. The evaporations from the Mediterranean too, during summer, carried off by the north winds, which have almost

* Savary, Lettres sur l'Egypte, passim.

† Volney, Voyage, t. II. p. 219.

‡ Brown. § Reynier, Traité sur l'Egypte, II. p. 12.

the constancy of trade winds in Egypt, finding nothing to stop their progress, pass over this country without interruption, and collect around the mountains of central Africa. There, deposited in rains, they swell the torrents which, falling into the Nile, augment its waters, and, under the form of an inundation, restore, with usury, to Egypt, the blessings of which the defect of rain otherwise deprived it. Thus, excepting along the sea shores, nothing is more rare in Egypt than rains, and this scarcity is the more marked in proportion as we go southward. The season in which any rain falls is called winter. At Cairo, there are, at an average, four or five showers in the year; in Upper Egypt, one or two at most. Near the sea rains are more frequent." This last circumstance, however, shows that the want of rain does not arise solely from the flatness of the surface, but partly from its previous aridity; nothing can be more flat than the sea shores, and the surface of the sea itself, but the perpetual humidity in the latter has the effect of producing a deposition of rain, both on its own surface and on the adjoining land, to which the more remote sandy expanse of territory is unfavourable. If Egypt were in the hands of a nation and government that cultivated the economical arts with spirit, perhaps the extension of herbage from the sea shore towards the interior would be followed by an extension of the domain of animating showers.

By a great proportion of the Egyptian farmers, however, the rains are considered as by no means beneficial occurrences, but as only occasioning the springing of a multitude of weeds which prove hurtful to the corn crops.

Temperature.

From the nature of the surface, and the universal aridity of the surrounding deserts, Egypt is much hotter than most other countries under the same parallel of latitude. The heated and rarefied state of that portion of air which is in immediate contact with the sand through the day, is productive of a refraction of the rays of light, giving origin to the surprising appearance called the *mirage*, presenting on the dry surface an exact representation

The Mirage.

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of a lake of water, sometimes ruffled into waves, at other times still and smooth, and appearing to reflect like a mirror the images of houses and other objects situated beyond it. Such is its most common appearance when seen from a distance. This phenomenon is the more striking, as water is generally much in request with the thirsty traveller, in a country where it is so scanty, and so dependent on the vicinity of the Nile, and when the illusion vanishes on his arriving at the spot, he feels a cruel disappointment, especially if not much used to the phenomenon.

Progress of the winds.

North winds.

The winds are very regular during the months of June, July, August, and September, blowing almost without interruption from the north, and the north-east. In the day the sky is clear, without clouds or mists. But the cooling of the atmosphere consequent on the setting of the sun condenses the vapours. These are then observed to pass with a hurried motion from north to south, and this motion continues till after sunrise on the following day, when the solar heat rarefies them anew and renders them invisible.

The epoch of the decrease of the Nile, which generally takes place in October, is accompanied with intermitting winds. These winds blow from the north, with intervals of calm weather. In winter the winds are changeable; the cloudless atmosphere opposes no obstacle to the action of the solar rays, and vegetation, then in all its strength, applies, with the best possible effect, the moisture contained in the earth. The only symptoms of moisture in the air are the abundant dews deposited in the night, which are always in proportion to the clearness of the atmosphere,* and some mists which make their appearance in the morning. The latter, however, are comparatively unfrequent.

* See a scientific and satisfactory account of this subject in Dr. Wells's Essay on Dew, and in the article DEW in the Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica, by Professor Leslie.

The approach of the vernal equinox changes the face of the country; the hot south wind begins to blow, but seldom lasts more than three days at a time. When this south wind, called the *khamseen* in Egypt, *samiel* in Arabia, and *samoon* in the desert, begins to blow, the atmosphere becomes troubled, sometimes acquiring a purple tinge; the air seems to lose its power of supporting life and vigour; a dry burning heat reigns universally, and the whirlwinds resembling the blasts of a heated furnace, sweep along the country in frequent succession. They often raise the sand and even small stones to a considerable height, so as to form a black cloud; and deposit it in large heaps on particular spots of ground. The fine sand is forced into the houses through every cranny, and every thing is filled with it.

The south winds, or khamseen.

The season of the khamseen is the only one in which the atmosphere of Egypt is generally unhealthy.* It is then that the plague makes its appearance in all its dreadful power, a disease the nature and origin of which still escape the researches of medical science. To us it seems proved that the plague is indigenous in Egypt, and not brought to it from other countries.† Ancient Egypt was not exempt from this scourge. It is without reason that some modern writers have accused the ancients of exaggerating the salubrity of Egypt. Certain passages in the works of Aretæus of Cappadocia show that a disease nearly allied to the plague was in his time considered as endemic in Egypt and Syria.

Endemic diseases.

The ophthalmia makes greatest ravages during the inundations, a circumstance which shows that it is not entirely owing to the glare of the sun and the heat of the scorching winds. As it attacks principally persons who sleep in the open air, it is natural to look for one cause of it in the copious night dews.‡ Some have ascribed it to the natron with which the soil is impregnated, communi-

Ophthalmia.

* Larrey, Relation historique et chirurgicale de l'armée d'Orient, p. 419.

† Mémoires de Gaëtan Sotira et de Pugnet. ‡ Tott, IV. p. 46.

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cating pungent qualities to the air,* a cause altogether fanciful. It is now well substantiated that this disease is cherished by a specific contagion existing in the country, and singularly favoured by different causes which bring it into frequent activity. Some of these causes are apparently opposite to one another, such as the solar glare, and the nocturnal cold, both of which are known with certainty to be frequent immediate causes of it in individuals.

Vegetables.

To an atmosphere thus singularly constituted, and to the regular inundations of the Nile, Egypt is indebted for the advantage which it enjoys of uniting almost all the cultivated vegetable species of the old continent. The culture of Egypt may be divided into two great classes. The one class belongs to the lands watered by the natural overflowings of the Nile, and the other to those which the inundation does not reach, and which are supplied by artificial irrigations.

Crops of the inundated lands

Among the first we include wheat, barley, spelt, beans, lentils, sesamum, mustard, flax, anise, carthamum, or saffron wood, tobacco, lupins, vetches, *barsim*, or Egyptian trefoil, fenugreek, pumpkins, melons, cucumbers of different kinds, and lettuce. The best wheat grows at Maraga, in Upper Egypt.† The district of Akmin pro-

Corn crops.

duces the largest crops. Barley with six rows of grains in the ear, (*Hordeum hexastichon*,) forms a large proportion of the food given to cattle and horses. The cucurbitaceous vegetables, and also tobacco, and lupins, generally cover the banks of the river in proportion as the water subsides, and the islands which it leaves uncovered. The melons and cucumbers grow almost visibly. In twenty-four hours they gain twenty-four inches of volume,‡ but are generally watery and insipid,§ the tobacco is weak, but

* Olivier, Magasin Encyclopedique Ve année t. I. p. 290.

† Norden, Voyage, p 274.

‡ Volney, Voyage, Forskâl, Flora Ægyptiaca.

§ Abdollatif, Relat. de l'Egypte, chap. II. Sonnini, Voyage d'Egypte, III p. 145 et 251.

reckoned much pleasanter to smoke than that of America. The wood is almost always cultivated in the canals when the water has retired. The flax in most districts is also cultivated on lands artificially irrigated. These cultures are not laborious. After a slight preparatory working, the seed is committed to the earth, still moist and slimy: it sinks by its own weight to a due depth, needing no harrowing to cover it; but, if the working and sowing are delayed, the soil cracks and hardens to such a degree as not to admit of being cultivated without great toil.* In Upper Egypt the grain is pulled when ripe; and in some parts of Lower Egypt it is cut with a sickle. The plough used here is simple and better contrived than that of the Arabians.†

Culture of dry lands.

The second kind of culture requires more attention and labour. It is that of lands which, from their elevation or from the means which localities afford for protecting them from the inundations of the river, are appropriated to plants that require repeated waterings during their growth. These cultures are chiefly on the very banks of the Nile, in Upper Egypt, in Faioom, and in the lowest part of Egypt where the waters already exhausted are not in sufficient abundance to cover all the lands. In Upper Egypt, these lands are chiefly sown with the *Holcus doura*, which forms the prevailing food of the people. That grain is sometimes eaten like maize in a green state, being previously roasted on the fire. Its stalk is eaten green like sugar cane: the dried pith is used as starch; the leaf is the food of cattle. The stalk is used as fuel for heating ovens. The grain is ground into meal, of which thin cakes are made in the manner of muffins, or crumpets, which eat tolerably well when newly made, but are extremely stale in a short time after. None of the preparations of this grain, in short, are agreeable to a European taste.‡ Upper

* Norden, Voyage, p. 335.

† Niebuhr's Arabia, p. 151, (in German.)

‡ Sicard, Nouv. Mém. II. p. 143.

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Egypt produces also in this sort of lands the sugar cane, the growth of which is completed there in a single season, as in Mazanderân on the shores of the Caspian Sea. Indigo, and cotton are cultivated in the same situation, and in the neighbourhood of the towns some pot-herbs. Faioom is distinguished for the cultivation of rose bushes, from which is obtained the rose-water, which is in so great request over the East. Pot-herbs are also produced here, and a little rice in the immense ravines which go off from Illahoon, to the north of that province. The lowest part of the Egyptian territory abounds in rice and pot-herbs. The best rice grows in the province of Damietta. The rice culture was introduced under the Caliphs, and was probably borrowed from the Hindoos.* Doura and maize are still cultivated in the Sharkieh, or the ancient Delta of the east, where now a little sugar-cane, indigo, and cotton are produced.

Artificial irrigations.

All lands under the second sort of culture are laid out in artificial squares separated by low dykes on the tops of which a small channel is formed. These channels communicate with one another. The water is raised by means of a long lever provided with a weight behind, which assists the ascent of the bucket hung to the extremity of the longest arm, and which a man depresses by a slight exertion: at the moment of its ascent the water is emptied into a reservoir from which it flows by the channels to the spot to which the person who manages the irrigation chooses to direct it. The motion of the lever not being capable of raising the water more than six feet, the cultivators are obliged to provide themselves with a succession of basins and levers, in proportion to the height of their land above the level of the river. Various other machines are used for raising water,† particularly the Persian wheel, driven by an ox. In Faioom, a method of watering the land is in use similar to that which prevails in certain districts of

* Hasselquist, Travels in Palestine, p. 130. (German.)

† Niebuhr. tab. XV. fig. 1, 2, 3, 4.

China and Japan. The waters intended for irrigating lands situated on the sides of the hills and at the bottom of a valley, are first raised to the top by a balance called *deloo*, or *shadoof*. They are received into horizontal rills, and then descend from one rill to another to the lower terraces, which are arranged like the seats of an amphitheatre on the sides of the hills. It must be acknowledged, however, that an injudicious waste of labour is incurred by raising any portion of the water higher than is requisite for diffusing it over that terrace for which it is ultimately designed.

Fruit trees.

Some European species of fruit trees do not grow in Egypt. This is the case with the almond, the walnut, and the cherry.* The pear, the apple, the peach, and the plum, are neither so plenty nor so good;† but the citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, and apricots, prosper, along with the banana, a single tree of which sometimes produces 500.‡ The sycamore, or fig of Pharaoh, less valued for its fruit than for its deep and broad shade, the carob, the jujube, the tamarind, and other trees, are cultivated, but none of them are equal in number and usefulness to the date palm, which is cultivated both in lands of natural and those of artificial irrigation. Groves are to be seen consisting of 300 or 400, sometimes of several thousands; each is valued at one piastre.§ The olive tree is only met with in gardens, but there are some olive plantations in Faioom, where the inhabitants preserve the fruits in oil, and sell them all over Egypt. The vine, in ancient times, formed an interesting branch of culture. Antony and Cleopatra inflamed their voluptuous imaginations by drinking the juice of the Mareotic grapes. In the days of Pliny, Sebennytus furnished the Roman tables with their choicest wines. At present the vine is not cultivated in Egypt ex-

Vines.

* Maillet, Descript. de l'Egypte, II. 235.

† See Wansleb, Relat. dell. stat. present. p. 59.

‡ Abdollatif, trad. de M. Silvestre de Sacy, p. 27 et 106.

§ Hasselquist, 128—133, &c. &c.

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cept for its shade and its grapes. Some Christians, who manufacture an indifferent wine in Faioom, form a very insignificant exception. The vines of Foua, mentioned by travellers of the last century, are no longer in existence.

The persea.

A large and beautiful fruit tree, celebrated among the ancients, the *persea* of the Greeks, and the *lebakh* of the Arabians, seems to have disappeared from the Egyptian soil,* at least, naturalists cannot recognise it in any of the species now existing in that country. It has been supposed to be the aguacate or *avocatier* of St. Domingo, to which, in consequence of this conjecture, botanists have given the name of *Laurus persea.*† Others have attempted to prove the identity of it with the sebesten,‡ but the differences are too glaring to allow this hypothesis to be tenable. We are only assured by positive testimony that this tree had become rare, and at last disappeared before the year 700; and that having come from Persia, where its fruit was crude and bitter, it acquired by culture those excellent qualities for which it was so celebrated; these circumstances ought to have led naturalists to look for this tree in the East Indies.

The lotus. Different meanings of this term.

Another production of Egypt, which makes a great figure in the writings of antiquity, is the *lotus.* This word was taken in different acceptations.§ The plant properly called the lotus is a species of *nymphæa,* or water lily, which, on the disappearance of the inundation, covers all the canals and pools with its broad round leaves, among which the flowers, in the form of cups of bright white or azure blue, rest with inimitable grace on the surface of the water. There are two species of the lotus, the white and the blue, both known to the ancients, though the blue kind is seldom mentioned. The rose-lily of the Nile, or the

* Silvestre de Sacy, Notes sur Abdollatif, 47—72.

† Clusius, Ravier, plant. histor. lib. 1. cap. 2.

‡ Schreber, de Persea Comment. III.

§ Desfontaines, Mem. de l'Académie des Sciences, 1788. Sprengel, Specimen Antiq. Botan. Delille, Annales du Muséum, t. I. p. 372. Savigny, dans les Mem. sur l'Egypte, I. p. 105.

Egyptian bean, which is frequently carved on the ancient monuments of Egypt, is not at present found in that country. The plant would have been unknown to naturalists if they had not found it in India. It is the *Nymphæa nelumbo* of Linnæus. It was on this plant that the lotus-eating Egyptians lived. But the fruits of the lotus, praised by Homer, and which so much delighted the companions of Ulysses, were those of the modern jujube, or *Rhamnus lotus*. This same tree is described by Theophrastus under the name of the lotus, and is perhaps the *dudaïne* of the Hebrew writings. Lastly, the plant called by Pliny *Faba græca*, or *lotus*, is the *Diospyros lotus*, a sort of guayacana or ebony.—The *papyrus*, equally celebrated in ancient times, and which is believed to have disappeared from the banks of the Nile, has been re-discovered in the *Cyperus papyrus* of Linnæus. The *colocasium*, so renowned in antiquity, is still cultivated in Egypt for the sake of its large esculent roots.

Forest trees.

Egypt, so rich in cultivated plants, is destitute of forests. The banks of the river and of the canals sometimes present us with coppices of *acacias* and *mimosas*. They are adorned with groves of rose laurel, of willows, (the *Salix ban.* of Forskal,) saules-kalef, cassias, and other shrubs. Faioom contains impenetrable hedges of *cacti*. This illusory appearance of forests furnishes the Egyptians with no firewood, and all that they make use of is brought from Caramania.* The peasants burn cow-dung, which they collect with an almost ludicrous solicitude. Scarcely does one of these animals show a disposition to part with any refuse, when the peasant stretches out his hand to receive it.†

Table of the succession of cultures through the year.

The economical year of Egypt presents a perpetual circle of labours and enjoyments.—In January, lupins, the dolichos, and cummin, are sown in Upper Egypt, while the wheat shoots into ear; and in Lower Egypt the beans

* Forskal, Flora Ægypt. Arab. LVI.

† Niebuhr, Voyage, p. 151.

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and flax are in flower. The vine, the apricot, and the palm tree are pruned. Towards the end of the month, the orange, the citron, and pomegranate trees begin to be covered with blossoms. Sugar cane, senna leaves, and various kinds of pulse and trefoil are cut down. In February all the fields are verdant; the sowing of rice begins; the first barley crop is harvested; cabbages, cucumbers, and melons ripen.—The month of March is the blossoming season for the greater part of plants and shrubs. The corn sown in October and November is now gathered. The trees which are not yet in leaf are the mulberry and the beech.—The first half of April is the time for gathering roses. Almost every sort of corn is cut down and sown at the same time. Spelt and wheat are ripe, as well as the greater part of leguminous crops. The Alexandrian trefoil yields a second crop.—The harvest of the winter grain continues during the month of May; *Cassia fistula* and henné are in flower; the early fruits are gathered, such as grapes, Pharaoh's figs, carobs, and dates.—Upper Egypt has its sugar cane harvest in June; the plants of the sandy grounds now begin to wither and die.—In the month of July, rice, maize, and canes are planted; flax and cotton are pulled: ripe grapes are abundant in the environs of Cairo. There is now a third crop of trefoil. The nenuphar and jessamine flower in August, while the palm trees and vines are loaded with ripe fruits, and the melons by this time have become too watery.—Towards the end of September, oranges, citrons, tamarinds, and olives, are gathered, and a second crop of rice is cut down.—At this time, and still more in October, all sorts of grain and leguminous seeds are sown; the grass grows tall enough to hide the cattle from the observer's view; the *acacias* and other thorny shrubs are covered with odoriferous flowers.—The sowing continues more or less late in November, according to the degree in which the waters of the Nile have retired. The corn begins to spring before the end of the month. The narcissuses, the violets, and the colocasias, flower on the dried lands; the

*nenuphar* disappears from the surface of the waters; dates and the sebesten fruit are gathered.—In December, the trees gradually lose their foliage; but this symptom of autumn is compensated by other appearances: the corn, the long grass, and the flowers, every where display the spectacle of a new spring. Thus in Egypt the land is never at rest. Every month has its flowers, and all the seasons their fruits.*

Animals.

The animal kingdom of Egypt will not detain us long. The want of meadows prevents the multiplication of cattle. They must be kept in stables during the inundation. The Mamelukes used to keep a beautiful race of saddle horses. Asses, mules, and camels, appear here in all their vigour. The numerous buffaloes often attack the Franks on account of their strange dress, and frequently bright colours, particularly when they happen, as in the instance of the British soldiers, to be dressed in scarlet. In Lower Egypt there are sheep of the Barbary breed. The large beasts of prey find, in this country, neither prey nor cover. Hence, though the jackal and hyena are common, the lion is but rarely seen in pursuit of the gazelles which traverse the deserts of the Thebaid. The crocodile and the hippopotamus, these primeval inhabitants of the Nile, seemed to be banished from the Delta, but are still seen in Upper Egypt. The islands adjoining the cataracts are sometimes found covered with flocks of crocodiles, which choose these places for depositing their eggs. The voracity of the hippopotamus has, by annihilating his means of support, greatly reduced the number of his race. Abdollatif, with some justice, denominates this ugly animal an enormous water-pig. It has been long known that the ichneumon is not tamed in Upper Egypt as Buffon had believed. The ichneumon is the same animal which the ancients mention under that name, and which has never been found except in this country. Zoology has lately been enriched with several animals brought from Egypt,

Crocodile.

Hippopotamus.

* Nordmeier, Calendar. Ægypt. Oeconomic. Gotting. 1792. Forskal, Hasselquist, Pococke, Norden, Niebuhr, &c. quoted by Nordmeier.

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among which are the jerboa, the *Dipus meridianus*, a new species of hare, a new fox, a hedgehog, a bat, and four species of rats, two of which are bristly. The *Coluber haje* has also been found, an animal figured in all the hieroglyphical tables as the emblem of providence; and the *Coluber vipera*, the true viper of the ancients.

Fish.

The Nile seems to contain some singular fishes hitherto unknown to systematic naturalists. Of this the *Polyptera bichir* described by Geoffroy-Saint-Hilaire,* is a very remarkable example. That able naturalist observes, in general, that the birds of Egypt do not much differ from those of Europe. He saw the Egyptian swan represented in all the temples of Upper Egypt, both in sculptures and in coloured paintings, and entertains no doubt that this bird was the *Chenalopex* of Herodotus, to which the ancient Egyptians paid divine honours, and had even dedicated a town in Upper Egypt called *chenoboscion*. It is not peculiar to Egypt, but is found all over Africa, and almost all over Europe. The *Ibis*, which was believed to be a destroyer of serpents, is, according to the observations of Cuvier, a sort of curlew, called at present *Aboohannes*. Messieurs Grobert and Geoffroy-Saint-Hilaire have brought home mummies of this animal, which had been prepared and entombed with much superstitious care.†

Birds.

The Egyptians keep a great quantity of bees, and transport them up and down the Nile, to give them the advantage of the different climates, and the different productions of Upper and Lower Egypt. The hives are kept in the boats. The bees spread themselves over both banks of the river, in quest of food, and return regularly on board in the evening.

* Annales du Muséum, I. p. 57.

† Mémoire sur l'Ibis, par M. Cuvier.

# BOOK LXI.

## EGYPT.

### PART II.

*Inquiries relative to the Isthmus of Suez and the extremity of the Arabian Gulf.*



In taking a view of the outline of Africa, and tracing the physical geography of Egypt, an interesting and curious subject must have suggested itself to the minds of our well informed readers. We have deferred the examination of it till now, that we might render it more complete by making it the subject of a separate book.

Questions proposed.

Has the isthmus of Suez always existed? Has Africa never been an island? Or has the neck of land which connects it with Asia been at any time much narrower than now? These questions have, since the publication of the labours of the Egyptian Institute, even divided intelligent men who have visited the country.

Let us begin with an account of the facts. The isthmus in its present state is a low lying land, composed of shell limestone rocks, mixed with strata of siliceous limestone, and partly covered with sands, or with saline marshes. In several places the solid strata are with difficulty perceived by their slight undulations; in the northern part, in particular, there is a vast plain, varied only by the inequalities created by sand hills. In the middle of

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its breadth, the ridges of the hills show their bare heads at certain distances, like a series of large steps. To the east, the south-east, and the south-west, the mountain chains of Arabia Petræa and of Egypt skirts at a distance the table land of the isthmus, which is terminated at the Red Sea.* The lake Birket-el-Ballah adjoining lake Menzaleh, Temsah or Crocodile Lake, and the almost dry basin of the Bitter Lakes, form, from north to south, a series of depressions, interrupted only by stripes of low land. The line prolonged on one side to the mouth of Tinéh, and on the other to the point of the Gulf of Suez, marks the natural boundary of Africa. The breadth of the isthmus, in a straight line, is 378,844 feet, or nearly seventy-two miles.

Level and inclinations of the surface.

The surface of this isthmus generally declines from the shores of the Red Sea towards those of the Mediterranean. The level of the latter sea is thirty feet lower than that of the Gulf of Suez.† There is a similar descent towards the Delta and the bed of the river Nile. The level of the water of the Nile at Cairo at its lowest, in 1798, 1799, and 1800, was nine feet lower than the surface of the gulf at low water. But the Nile rising sixteen cubits by the Nilometer, is nine feet higher than the Red Sea at high water, and fourteen higher than the same sea at low water. Besides these leading inclinations of the surface, there is a particular one in the middle of the isthmus. The deep basin, called the Bitter Lakes, is more than fifty-four feet lower than the level of the Red Sea, the waters of which would enter and fill it, if they were not prevented by a little sandy isthmus about three feet above the level of the sea. In another part the valley of Sababhyar, and that of Ooady-Toomylat open to the waters of the Nile, during its rise, an entrance into the Bitter Lakes.

* Rozières, dans la description de l'Egypte, Antiquités; Mémoires, I. p. 136. et la carte hydrographique de la Basse-Egypte, de M. Lèpere.

† Description de l'Egypte, etat moderne, I. p. 54—57—160—176. Mémoires sur le canal des deux mers, par M. Lèpere, et le Tableau des Nivellemens dans l'Atlas.

From this account, it follows that the Red Sea never could have occupied the basin of the Bitter Lakes in a constant manner, because its waters, if raised sufficiently high to form such a communication, would have found no barrier to the north of that basin: they would have flowed all the way to the Nile by the Ras-el-Ooadi, and to the Mediterranean by the Ras-el-Mayah. The two seas thus brought into mutual contact would have reached a common level, and the strait would have become permanent. We do not deny the possibility of a sudden violent irruption, but only that of a permanent communication.

Consequences of its level.

But it will be said, the Mediterranean may have been formerly thirty or forty feet higher than now; in that case it must have covered, in a great measure, the Delta and the isthmus; it must have penetrated into the basin of the Bitter Lakes, from which it is now only separated by a tongue of low land, which perhaps has not always existed. This is the only rational hypothesis that can be advanced in favour of the existence of an ancient strait in this situation. But it is evidently a hypothesis which goes back to an epoch anterior to history, for no authentic testimony of such a state of things is now in existence. The vague traditions mentioned by Homer and Strabo on the separation of the isle of *Pharos* from the continent, would not even on the system of those who believe them,* afford proof of so great a change. But these traditions when duly weighed, prove, in fact, nothing at all; for the removal of Pharos from the river of Egypt to a distance of seven days sail, may be found, perhaps, along the present coast, taking the Sebennitic mouth for that by which Menelaus entered. It is also possible that the Delta, inhabited by savage shepherds, was not yet separated from the kingdom of Thebes, or Egypt properly so called. At all events, an account so vague cannot be received as a historical proof.

Hypothesis on the waters of the Mediterranean.

* Dolomieu, Journal de Physique, t. XLII.

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Shells, crystals of sea salt, and brackish waters are found every where, even to the centre of Africa. These remains of ancient catastrophes, have nothing in common with events belonging to historical epochs.

Position of Heröopolis.

One plausible geographical proof has been brought forward to show that the limits of the Red Sea have been contracted. This is the position of *Heröopolis.** We shall discuss anew this important question, defending, with certain modifications, and by some new arguments, the hypothesis of M. d'Anville, against the opinions of Messrs. Gosselin and Rozière; we shall show that this hypothesis does not lead to the consequences which Messrs. Lepère and Dubois-Aymé have drawn from it with regard to the contraction of the gulf.

Heroopolis is not Pithom.

Some insurmountable arguments concur to place the city of *Heroopolis*, mentioned by Strabo, Eratosthenes, and the Itineraries, at Abookesheyd, in the valley of Sababhyar, to the north-west of the Bitter Lakes. We do not indeed believe this city to be identical with the *Patumos* of Herodotus,† and the *Pithom* of the Sacred Scriptures.‡ The Seventy interpreters, and the Coptic translator, not only agree indeed in considering Pithom and *Heroopolis* as identical, but in confounding them with *Ramses*, the capital of the land of Goshen, the abode of the Israelites. But, as Herodotus makes *Patumos* the site of the beginning, and not of the termination of the canal of the two seas,§ it is evident that this place cannot be at a great distance from the Nile. We think that Pithom corresponds to the fortified place called Thou in the Itinerary of Antoninus, and Tohum in the Account of the

* Dubois-Aymé, sur les anciennes limites de la Mer Rouge. Descript. de l'Egypte, état moderne, I. 187, &c. Lepère, Mém. sur le canal des deux mers. Ibid. Append. II. w. 147, &c.

† Herodot. II. 158. Steph. Byz. in voce.

‡ Exod. I. 11. compare d'Anville, Mém. sur l'Egypte, p. 123—124.

§ See the text, ἤκται δὲ ἀπὸ τοῦ Νείλου τὸ ὕδωρ εἰς αὐτήν (τὴν διαῦχα). ἤκται δὲ κατύπερθε ὀλίγον Βουβάστιος πόλιος παρὰ Πατούμιον τὴν Ἀραβίην πόλιν.

Empire, a place situated at the very point at which the canal enters the desert, and where the inundations generally terminate. Herodotus having seen these places while the waters were at their height, may have believed that the canal began here; but Heroopolis is certainly the same city with that called *Hero** in Antoninus's Itinerary, and in Stephen of Byzantium. This last lexicographer gives us a formal assurance of it. The measurements of the itinerary in the most authentic manuscripts, correspond well with the situation of the very remarkable ruins discovered at Abookesheyd, among which is recognised a caravansera, an evidence of the busy trade which must have been carried on at that place.

Distances assigned in the Itineraries.

In order to assist our readers in forming a proper idea of the argument, we have reduced the distances of the ancient and modern places to the form of a table.

| The places, according to the ancient and modern names. | Distances by the Itineraries. In Roman miles. | Distances by the Itineraries. In English feet. | Measured distances on the hydrographic chart of Lower Egypt. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Babylonia (Old Cairo) . Helion (Ruins of Heliopolis . . . . . | XII | 57,994 | 53,136 |
| Scenæ Veteranorum, (Menair) . . . . . | XVIII | 86,992 | 68,880 |
| Vicus Judæorum (Belbeis) | XII | 57,994 | 54,120 |
| Thou or Tohum (Pithom. Abbasah) . . . . . | XII | 57,994 | 65,600 |
| Hero or Heroopolis (Cherosh. Aboukesheyd) . | XXIV | 115,988 | 103,080 |
| Serapeum (Ruins to the north of the Bitter Lakes) . . . . . | XVII | 96,832 | 75,440 |
| Clysma (Ruins of Kolzoom) to the north of Suez . | L | 241,647 | 229,600 by the west side of the lakes. 239,440 by the east of the lakes. |
| | CXLVI | 715,431 | 904,296 |

* The name has been written Herô like Heliû, the termination *polis* being understood.

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If it is considered that we do not know the windings of the road, and can only form an imperfect estimate of them, the coincidence between the sums total of the measurements will appear very striking. But it is farther possible to remove the disagreement of some of the partial numbers; for the Itinerary in another passage gives the distances from Heliopolis to Thou in the following manner.

| Names of Places. | Distances in the Itinerary. | | Distances by the Chart. |
|---|---|---|---|
| From Heliou to Scenæ Veteranorum . . . . . | XIV m. p. | 67,659 | 68,380 |
| From Scenæ to Thou . . . . | XXVI | 125,719 | 119,720 |
| | XL | 193,378 | 188,600 |

The testimony of Strabo, or of the authors whom he has followed, is perfectly reconciled with that of Stephanus and of the Itinerary. This geographer adopts expressly a passage of Eratosthenes which runs thus: "After the city of Heroopolis, *which is on the Nile*, we find the extremity of the Arabian Gulf."* Thus *Heroopolis* must be situated in a place where the waters of the Nile can pass, consequently on a canal connected with that river. How could Messrs. Gosselin and Rozière overlook an authority so formal and so worthy of confidence?

Objections.

The other passages of Strabo and of Pliny do not contradict one another. Sometimes it is asserted that *Heroopolis* is near *Arsinoe*, or *Cleopatris*, which is on the gulf,† but we are not to conclude with confidence that these authors place *Heroopolis* itself immediately on the gulf. Sometimes we are told that the Heroopolitan gulf derives its name from this city, which is in its neighbourhood. But we must not give these words a meaning

* Διοτι απο Ηρωων πολεως, ητις εστι προς τω Νειλω μυχος Αραβιε κολπε. Geogr. lib. xvi. p. 767. Almelov.

† Πλησιον δε της Αρσινοης και η των Ηρωων πολις, και η Κλεοπατρις εν πω μυχω του Αραβιου κολπου. Geog. lib. XVII. p. 804.

in contradiction with other more positive expressions. The example of the gulf of Lyons shows that it is not necessary that a city should be on the very shores of a gulf to which it gives its name.

Mythological traditions.

Some mythological traditions brought forward in this discussion may furnish a subject for fresh local research. "*Hero* or *Heros*, is a city of Egypt called also Haimos, (blood) because *Typhon* being there struck with a thunderbolt,* stained the ground with his blood." But Herodotus tells us of a place called *Erythrè-Bolos*, that is, "Red clay."† Now Typhon was called by the Egyptians *Rosh*. or the red, and the words "red earth," or "earth of Typhon" were in their language translated into *Cherosh*.† Is it not probable that Herodotus has given a simple, and Stephanus a poetical translation of the Egyptian name of the city of Typhon? The true name of this city, Cherosh, preserved in the Itineraries, has thus been transformed by the Greeks into *Heroopolis*, or "the city of heroes." To give these connections of circumstances the force of an argument, it would be sufficient to find near the locality which we assign to *Heroopolis*, a soil composed of red clay.

Conclusions.

The position of *Heroopolis*, or rather *Heros* or *Cherosh*, being fixed by the Itinerary to the north-west of the Bitter Lakes, it is evident that this city never could, at least not in the time of Strabo, be found on the shores of the Red Sea. For, as the levels of the ground demonstrate, if the waters of that sea had filled the basin of the lakes and the valley Sababhyar, they would also have come in contact with those of the Nile. There would have been a real strait, and the execution of a canal would have been superfluous. But as the basin in Strabo's time communicated with the Red Sea by a canal, and could at pleasure

* Stephanus de Urb. † Euterpe, Cap. 3.

‡ Hennicke, Geograph. Herodot. p. 72.

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be filled with the waters of that sea, the basin might with some reason be considered as a prolongation of the gulf, and Heroopolis spoken of as the place where the navigation of small boats commenced,—as the seat of a great trade both maritime and inland, and a city worthy of giving its name to the gulf.

Having hitherto intentionally kept Ptolemy out of view, we now proceed to comment on his evidence, which appears to be at utter variance with all the attempts at conciliation in which we have been engaged.

The Heroopolis of Ptolemy.

When the canal, neglected and deserted, no longer supported the commerce of Heroopolis, it it probable that the inhabitants transferred their abode to a place nearer the gulf itself, or rather were removed to another city which may have taken the name of Heroopolis, on becoming the capital of the district or prefecture.

This new Heroopolis, the only one known to Ptolemy, may have been properly placed by that geographer in a latitude a little north of Suez. We think that this second Heroopolis, marked in Ptolemy's tables,* occupied a place marked by some ruins, to the north-east of the end of the gulf: which agrees sufficiently well with M. Gosselin's opinion, in the other parts of which we do not acquiesce.† These ruins cannot belong to *Arsinöe*, surnamed *Cleopatris*, as the engineers of the French army of Egypt believed; for that city was, according to one who was probably an actual observer, situated at the end of the canal of the two seas;‡ and it was in this harbour that Ælius Gallus collected the war galleys intended to act against the Arabians. This passage, overlooked in recent discussions, seems to fix the position of *Arsinöe Cleopatris* to the north of Kolzoom. The small creek which forms the

* Ptolemée, Geogr. lib. iv. cap. 5. 7.

† Récherches sur la Géogr. de Grecs. ii. p. 166. 183. 278.

‡ Κατα Κλεοπατριδα την προς ϛη παλαια πδιαϱυν τη απο του Νειλου, Geogr. lib. XVI. p. 537, éd. Causab. "Amnem qui Arsinoen præfluit, Ptolemæum appellavit." Plin. IV. p. 29.

inner harbour of Suez, corresponds to the Charanda Gulf* of Pliny, where this Roman geographer seems to place also the small place Aennus,† probably Bir-Suez, and the *Danéon*, or lower harbour,‡ which may represent the town of Suez itself.

Position of Clysma.

The whole of the obscurity attached to the Heroopolis of Ptolemy will not be removed unless we can also fix the position of *Clysma*, which was at first only a strong hold.§ The hypothesis of the learned M. Gosselin, of there being two places called Clysma, falls to the ground with the false version of M. De Guignes, on which it was founded: it is proved that no Arabian author has said what this orientalist has ascribed to Ibn-al-Vardi.‖ All the oriental writers acquiescing in a tradition universal among the inhabitants of the country, place Kolzoom, or Clysma, a little to the north of Suez, where Niebuhr saw its ruins. The meaning of the Greek name also shows that this fortress¶ must have been situated near the sluice which dammed up the canal. The same position is assigned to it by the measurements of the Itinerary, if from *Serapéum* we follow the sinuosities of the west bank of the Bitter Lakes. The table seems, indeed, to place *Clysma* on the other side of the canal, and also of the gulf; but, as the distance given in the tables would remove its situation to Arabia Petræa, and farther south than the fountains of Moses, this obscure passage can neither support the one nor the other side of the questions now under discussion.

* This word seems to be Arabic, or from the Hebrew verb כרה, perfodit.

† From Aiin, a fountain.

‡ From דון lower.

§ Καστρον, φρουριον.

‖ Quatremere, Mem. Histor. et Geograph. I. p. 179.

¶ Κλυσμα, irrigation, inundation, sometimes signifies the same, as κλυστηρ, a gutter, a syringe. Lucian, in the *Pseudomantis*, speaking of this place, couples with it the article, τα κλυσματος, i. e. the dam or floodgate. Strabo speaks of a κλειστος Ευριπος.

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The name of the fortress seems to have been afterwards given to the town which it commanded. But was this town still, after the Arabian conquest, the ancient Arsinöe, to the north of *Clysma*, or the modern city of Suez, to the south of it? The passages quoted from the Arabian authors furnish no data on the question. At all events, in the fifth century, the name of Clysma was, from the city, given also to the gulf.* It is in imitation of the Greeks, that the Arabians said, the *sea* of Kolzoom, an observation which escaped the learned commentator of Edrisi. The name, then, might naturally be given to the chain of mountains bounding the west side of the Gulf of Suez; though we must not look there for a city of the same name.

Cause of Ptolemy's error.

This discussion leaving no doubt respecting the position of the city of *Clysma*, we ask, why Ptolemy has removed it so far to the south, by placing it at least forty minutes (miles) from his Heroopolis?—The answer is easy. He only knew the position of Clysma by its distance from the *ancient Heroopolis*, which is not much less than forty minutes, and he transferred this same distance to the south of the *new* Heroopolis.

Conclusion.

Ptolemy's text, thus explained, furnishes no argument for or against the contraction of the sea: It does not oppose it, for the position of the old Heroopolis, the principal proof of the hypothesis of the contraction is independent of that which Ptolemy gives to the new city of that name. Nor does it favour the hypothesis; for New Heroopolis and Arsinöe were of contemporaneous existence with the fortress of Clysma; the one was the capital of the name or district, the other, like the port of Suez now, was the point of departure for ships. We have no evidence that the new Heroopolis was on the very shore of the gulf, and that the latter must, therefore, have retired 5970 yards, as Gosselin maintains.†

* Philostorg, Hist. Ecclesiast. III. chap. 6.

† Recherches sur la Geographie, II. p. 184.

Having shown that the topography of Heroopolis, agreeable to the system of d'Anville, does not lead necessarily to the inference of a change in the shores of the Red Sea, we should now discuss the actual measures which the ancients have left us of the breadth of the isthmus. But our uncertainty respecting the value of the *stadium* renders the discussion fruitless. If the thousand stadia assigned by Herodotus were Egyptian stadia of 108 yards, they would bring the extremity of the gulf only to the south end of the Bitter Lakes. But these lakes being considerably lower than the surface of the water, the latter could not have stopped at this point, where no barrier was presented to it. The 900 stadia of Strabo, and the 817 of Marinus Tyrius, considered as Egyptian stadia, favour somewhat more the contraction of the isthmus, but without being quite decisive. If we reckon them as stadia of 700 to the degree, these measures support the opinion that the state of the isthmus has not altered.*

Ancient measures of the breadth of the isthmus.

As we must take every fact into view, we acknowledge that the march of the Israelites in leaving Egypt, has furnished an argument for a contraction of the gulf.† This line of march would appear more probable, if we should suppose that the Red Sea extended as high as Saba-Hbyar; we should then conceive that this fugitive tribe, coming from the neighbourhood of Abbaseh and of Belbeis, and bending their course to the desert, fell in with the sea in the neighbourhood of Heroopolis, and had, in consequence of an extraordinary tide, or a violent wind, found the isthmus dry, which at present separates the Gulf of Suez from the basin of the Bitter Lakes.

Examination of a passage in Moses.

This view of the matter would be very favourable to an improved interpretation of a passage‡ in which the

* Roziere, Mémoire sur la géographie comparée de l'isthme de Suez.—Description de l'Egypte, vol. I.

† Baron Castaz, an unpublished report on the Mémoire of Dubois-Aymé.

‡ Exod. xiv. 22—29.

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translators have made the author of the Books of Moses say, (Exodus, chap. xiv. verse 22d and 29th) that the waters stood up on the left and on the right of the Israelites like a wall, but where the text only says that the waters were like a wall, or a rampart, on their left and on their right. An army, in fact, passing between the Gulf and the Bitter Lakes would have both flanks covered in this manner.

Heroopolis is not identical with Baal-Zephon.

An argument is furnished by the pretended identity of Heroopolis with the Baal-Zephon of the Hebrew text.* Sephon, or Sophon, we are told, is one of the names of Typhon; and the city of Cherosh, Heros, or Heroopolis, is the city of Typhon. The Israelites, before passing the sea, encamped opposite to Baal-Zephon: that town must, therefore, have been only a short way from the shores of the gulf.

This argument, drawn from etymology, however, admits of a corresponding reply. Baal-Zephon† literally signifies "the Lord of the North;" and may be applied to any city to the north of the termination of the gulf opposite to Ajerood, or Hagirood, which to us appears identical with the *Hachiroth* of Moses.

The narrative of the Hebrew legislator, though simple, and carrying conviction along with it, is not sufficiently circumstantial to allow us to entertain a hope of explaining it. The poetic hymn with which it is accompanied, and which contains the most important details, does not admit of a precise interpretation. All the information that these records give us in physical geography is, that in former times, as in our own, the level of the gulf was liable to considerable variation from the influence of the tides and the winds.

Canal of the two seas.

If the isthmus of Suez has not undergone any change within the limits of history, particularly no remarkable

* Numbers, chap. xxxiii. v. 7. Exod. chap. xiv. v. 2. J. J. H. Forster, Epist. 28, 29. Hennicke, Geogr. Herodoti, p. 72.

† בעל צפן.

contraction, if a natural communication between the two seas has never existed within the periods of human record, we know that industry has attempted to open by art, a passage which nature had denied. The forming of a canal between the two seas has been the subject of many projects and many discussions. The engineers of the French army of the east ascertained the traces and remains of a canal, with a most satisfactory precision. The canal goes from Balbeis (*Vicus Judæorum*) on the old Pelusiac branch of the Nile, now the canal of Menedji, to Abbaséh, the ancient *Thou*. There it enters the narrow valley of Arabes-Tonmylat, the level of which is thirty-two or thirty-three feet lower than that of the Red Sea. Several portions of the bed of the canal are still in such a state of preservation as to require nothing except cleaning. It passes on to Abookesheyd, which is considered as identical with the old Heroopolis. The basin of the Bitter Lakes might have been filled at pleasure from the waters of the Nile: beyond this basin, the traces of the canal reappear in the isthmus which separates the lakes from the Red Sea, and show that the canal was continued the whole way.* But to what age and to what potentate is this great work to be referred? Without noticing the fabulous times of Sesostris and Menelaus, there are two kings better known in history, Necho and Psammetichus, neither of whom appears to us to have been its author. They, like Darius, were prevented by the dread of seeing Egypt inundated by the waters of the Red Sea, which were known to have a higher level than the Nile. It would have been a sacrilegious act to have thus admitted the malignant Typhon into the happy empire of Osiris. The use of locks and floodgates was unknown, which would have protected the Egyptian fields from this imaginary danger. The Ptolemies, according to Strabo† who had travelled in Egypt,

Antiquity of this work.

* Description de l'Egypte; Mémoire de M. Lepère.

† Geogr. XVII.

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completed the canal. According to Pliny, they only brought it as far as the basin of the Bitter Lakes.* The former of these authors makes Phacusa the point at which the canal communicated with the Nile, which would suppose this canal to be a different one from that which has been recently traced. The latter gives, in Roman paces, the exact measures of the length of the canal from Balbeis to the Bitter Lakes, as well as that of the total distance of the Gulf of Suez from the Nile, both of which measurements are found correct. If so well-informed a writer believed that the canal did not extend to the Red Sea, which its vestiges show it to have done, we here find a proof that the navigation of it had been relinquished. Perhaps the sluices had not been well constructed, or it had been found more convenient and profitable to convey merchandise by the harbours of *Myos-Hormos* and Berenice. The emperor Adrian, who caused a canal to be formed to the east of the Nile, called *Trajanus Amnis*, and which went off from Babylonia, seems to have intended it solely for irrigations, by means of which the province of Augustamnica was rendered a flourishing country.

But the Arabians, particularly El-Magrizi and El-Makyn, attest that this canal was opened again by order of the Caliph Omar, and was used for navigation from the year 644 to 767. At this time another caliph caused it to be shut up, in order to deprive a rebel chief of his supplies of provisions. The Ottoman emperors have oftener than once contemplated the re-establishment of this canal. While the French army was in Egypt, some learned discussions were maintained on the practicability and advantages of such a restitution. A steady and enlightened government could execute the project at a moderate expense. The value of the lands which by means of it would be brought into cultivation, would be more than sufficient to cover it. But, as the navigation would, on the one side, depend on

* Plin. VI. cap. 29.

the rising of the Nile, and, on the other, on the monsoons which prevail in the Arabian gulf; and as these two conditions do not coincide to such a degree as to allow an uninterrupted navigation, it is very probable that this canal, though highly useful and necessary for the commercial prosperity of Egypt, would produce no great revolution in the East Indian trade.

# BOOK LXII.

## EGYPT.

### PART III.

*Topographical and Political Details.*

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In our physical sketch of Egypt, we traced the influence of a monotonous territory and an unchanging climate. A certain gloom will also be attached to our accounts of the cities and towns of a country which has been so often described. We must always sail along the river or its canals, always admire antique monuments which we are unable to explain, always cast a mournful look on modern towns fast hastening to destruction, surrounded by palms and sycamores. On every hand oppression, misery, distrust and discord hold possession of a country so well fitted to become the abode of happiness and prosperity.

Historical revolutions.

In order to give some interest to this account, it is necessary to call to mind at every step the nations which have successively ruled this country, and have left monuments behind them. In the history of every age Egypt holds a conspicuous place. Under her Pharaohs she derived strength from the stability of her laws, and was often the successful rival of the greatest monarchies of the world. Invaded and devastated by Cambyses, she was for 193 years either the subject or the vassal of Persia, and frequently in a state of open rebellion. The Greeks at

last came to her assistance. Alexander the Great was received by her as a deliverer, and, it is probable, intended to make this country the seat of his empire.

For three centuries the Ptolemies made Egypt a flourishing country in commerce and the arts, and her towns under them were almost converted into Grecian colonies. Augustus united this fertile kingdom to the Roman empire, and for 666 years it was the granary of Rome and Byzantium. It formed one of the earliest conquests of the successors of Mahomet. About the year 887, the power of the caliphs was succeeded by the reign of the Turcomans, their own janissaries, whom they had called to their aid. The dynasties of the Tolonides, the Fatimites, and the Aïoobites, ruled over Egypt till the year 1250.

Mamelukes

The Mamelukes, or military slaves of the Turcoman sultans of Egypt, then massacred their masters, and took possession of the sovereignty. The Turkish dynasty, or that of the Bassarite Mamelukes, reigned till 1382. The Circassian race, or that of the Bordjite Mamelukes, ruled here till within these very few years; for Selim II. emperor of the Ottomans, after taking possession of Egypt, only abolished the monarchical form of government of these Mamelukes; he allowed an aristocracy of twenty-four Beys to remain, subjected to a stated tribute. Since his death, the Mamelukes have more than once thrown off the authority of the Ottomans.

French.

In 1798, the French abolished the Mameluke aristocracy, and made themselves masters of the whole of Egypt. A great European colony now seemed to spring up in this fine country, and a fair hope was cherished for the progress of civilization. The sciences, and especially that of geography, would have derived inestimable accessions from the success of that noble project. But it was attempted during the bloody wars and jealousies by which enlightened Europe was distracted. Far from being concerted by the combined wisdom of the civilized world, and supported by its united energies, it was undertaken in subserviency to the paltry object of gratifying the selfish glory

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of Buonaparte, and the aggrandizement of the French nation, which had tarnished the liberal character of her revolution, and lost the confidence of every philanthropic mind by the barbarous pillage of Sierra Leone. The rival selfishness of Great Britain, aiding the views of the Sublime Porte, poured from the British isles, from the Bosphorus, and the Ganges, numerous armies to exterminate the French army, which was too happy to take shelter under the wing of the civilized maxims of war, and return safe to Europe, to avoid falling under the ruthless sabre of the Turks. In 1801 this evacuation was effected, and barbarism again took possession of her prey. Perfidious assassinations, and merciless massacres, have signalized the contests between the Turkish government and the Mamelukes, and between the latter and the now almost independent Pasha of Egypt. A ray of improvement in the arts, and of encouragement to industry, has unexpectedly begun to glimmer amidst the arbitrary sway of the ruffian masters of Egypt; but under such patronage, permanent advancement in civilization cannot be expected.

Ancient and modern divisions.

The ancients had divided Egypt according to a principle afforded them by the course of the river; into Upper Egypt called the Thebaid, because Thebes was its capital; Middle Egypt, called also the "Seven Governments," or the Heptanomis; and Lower Egypt, or the Delta, extending to the sea.

The Arabs and Ottomans have only changed the names of these divisions:

1. Upper Egypt is called the Said, and includes the provinces of Thebes, Djirdjeh, and Sioot.

2. Middle Egypt is called the Vostani, consisting of the provinces of Faioom, Benisooef and Minyet.

3. Lower Egypt is called Bahari, or "the Maritime Country," and includes the provinces of Bahyreh, Rasid or Rosetta, Gharbyeh, Menoof, Massoora, Sharkieh, and the Cairo district, consisting of the subdivisions of Kelioobeh and Atfihieh.

The appellation of Upper Egypt is sometimes taken in a strictly physical acceptation, and made to include all the provinces above Cairo.* On this principle Abulfeda and Ebn-Haukal divide Egypt into two parts, the *Rif* and the *Saïd*, that is, the coast and the high country.† Another Arabian calls these divisions Kibli and Bahari, or the south and the coast.‡ But the most recent observations, by making us acquainted with a defile or contraction, separating the Vostani from the Said proper, incline us to prefer the usual threefold division.

Towns of Lower Egypt.

We shall first take a view of the towns and remarkable localities of Lower Egypt.

Alexandria.

The ancient glory of Alexandria is still attested by the extensive ruins by which the present city is surrounded, and in a manner concealed. It is built on a sandy stripe of land formed by the sea, along the ancient mole which once connected Pharos with the continent. Of its two harbours the most easterly seems to have lost its former advantages by the changes which the coast has undergone. The ancient promontory, the situation of the modern Pharillon, has been worn lower and destroyed by the waves: its ruins have been carried into the interior of the harbour, where the vessels have also been long in the habit of discharging their ballast.—The famous Pharos, built on the island (now a peninsula) of the same name, serves as a light-house at the entrance of the harbour, or rather roadstead, where vessels are frequently lost. The other extremity of the peninsula surrounds in part the western or old harbour, which is possessed of great advantages, but shut against Christians. To the south of the modern city and of the two harbours is the site of old Alexandria.

Harbours.

* Compare d'Anville, Mem. sur l'Egypte, p. 36. Wansleben in Paulin, p. 8.

† Abulfeda vers Michael, p. 33. Compare with the notes of M. Silvestre de Sacy on Abdollatif, p. 397.

‡ Notice et extraits de Memoires, l. 250.

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Here among the heaps of rubbish, and among the fine gardens planted with palms, oranges, and citrons, are seen some churches, mosques, and monasteries, and three small clusters of dwellings, formerly three towns, one of which is surrounded with a wall, and called the fort. Traces are seen of ancient streets, in straight lines, and some ruins of colonnades mark the sites of palaces. One of the obelisks, called Cleopatra's Needle, still stands upright. All this confused mass of ruins, gardens, and masonry, is in the greater part of its circumference, surrounded with a high and double wall. The commission of the French Institute of Egypt seemed to regard this inclosure as the work of the Arabians. Such also is the opinion of Niebuhr, Wansleb, and the greater part of travellers. Pococke, however, thinks that the Arabians only built the inner wall; and Baron de Tott believes that nothing about it is modern, except some local reparations. To us this inclosure appears to represent precisely the space of thirty stadia in length, and ten in breadth, which Strabo assigns as the dimensions of the city of Alexander and the Ptolemies. Only that part of the wall which extends from the Rosetta Gate towards the Roman Tower, in a direction from east-south-east to west-north-west, seems to pass through the ancient quarter of Bruchium, which, filled with palaces and monuments, extended quite round the New Harbour. Might not this part of the wall be the work of Caracalla, when, according to the expression of Dion the historian,* that ferocious beast of Ausonia came to devastate and drench with blood the beautiful city of Alexandria? Even the forts which exist to the north and south of the ancient city seem to be those erected by that tyrant. We also think that many of the ruins date from the epoch of the capture of the city by the cruel Aurelian.

The ancient city.

Column called Pompey's Pillar.

On the outside of the southern gate, a detached column

* Dion. Hist. Rom. l. LXVIII. p. 1307. Herodian, l. IV. p. 158. Compare the plan of Alexandria by M. Lepère in the Atlas of the Description de l'Egypte.

eighty-eight feet high, forms the most commanding object connected with the city and its environs. It has been erroneously called "Pompey's Pillar," and "the Pillar of Severus." It is the great column which served as the principal ornament of the famous Sérapéum, a vast building consecrated to the worship of an Egyptian divinity, and which, after the destruction of the Museum of the Ptolemies became the receptacle of the Alexandrine library, and the resort of men of letters. Here, as in a place of safety, Caracalla feasted his eyes with the massacre of the people of Alexandria; a circumstance which, added to many others, leads us to think that both the Sérapéum and the Circus were situated in a suburb without the walls of the ancient city.*

Reduced to a population of 16,000 souls, Alexandria before the French invasion carried on a trade in which the south of Europe had a considerable share. It was the medium of all the exchange of commodities that took place between Egypt and Constantinople, Leghorn, Venice, and Marseilles.

Near Aboukir, the roadstead of which makes so conspicuous a figure in history, the coast ceases to be composed of rocks; and alluvial lands begin. The city of Rosetta is described at a distance in the midst of groves of date trees, bananas, and sycamores. It is situated on the banks of the Nile, which annually washes, without injury, the walls of the houses. Its population, like that of Alexandria, progressively declines. The houses, though generally better built than those of Alexandria, are so crazy that they would go to ruin in a few months, if they were not favoured by a climate which destroys nothing. The stories projecting successively beyond one another, render the streets dark and dismal. An island in this part of the

Rosetta.

* Langlès, notes on Norden, Voyage III. p. 279. Silvestre de Sacy, notes sur Abdollatif, p. 231—239. Zoega de origine obeliscorum, p. 24 et 607.

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river, a league in diameter, presented to M. Denon the appearance of a most delicious garden,* but is described by Hasselquist as an insupportable place with musquitos and buffaloes.†

Northern coasts.

From Rosetta to Damietta the low sandy coast was formerly infested by robbers, or occupied by rude shepherds and fishermen living without law. Lake Bourlos, filled with islets, extends over a part of this country. Beltym, a town situated on the side of the lake, seems to correspond to the ancient Buto. Here a learned man, well versed in Egyptian antiquities, places Elearchia or Bucoliæ, that is, the country of marshes and of buffalo-herds.‡ This district bore in the Egyptian language, the name of Bashmoor, the same word which was used for a name to the third dialect of the ancient language of Egypt. The savage Bashmurians lived sometimes in their boats, and sometimes among the reeds which covered their marshy banks. Such appears still to be the condition of the people who live round Bourlos. The same picture is applicable to the neighbourhood of Lake Menzaleh, where Elearchia was placed by other writers.

Damietta.

All the country round Damietta is filled with large rice fields, on which great attention is bestowed. The rice of Damietta is the most esteemed of any in the Levant. But the city, which according to Binos contains 30,000, and according to Savary 80,000 souls, is very dirty, almost all the inhabitants delighting in the most filthy habits of living. Their health, especially that of the females, soon languishes, and multitudes of blind and purblind persons are met in every corner. This city, one of the keys of Egypt, carries on a great trade in rice, and other provisions. It was built in 1250, five miles and a half from

* Denon, t. I. p. 33.

† Hasselquist, Voyage, p. 62.

‡ Etienne Quatremère, Recherches sur la littérature Egyptienne, p. 147. Idem, Mémoires historiques et géographiques, t. I. p. 220—223.

the site of the ancient Thamiatis, but destroyed in the time of the crusades.*

Towns of the eastern Delta.

The coast of the ancient eastern Delta is still lower and more marshy than that between Rosetta and Damietta. Menzaleh would not deserve particular attention, were it not for its very large lake, in the bosom of which are the islands of Matharyeh, which are very populous, and covered with houses, some of brick, and others of clay. In that which is called Myt-el-Matharyeh, the hovels of the people and the tombs of the dead form one promiscuous assemblage. The houses seem rather to be dens than human dwellings.

The fishermen of Matharyeh allow none of their neighbours to fish in the lake. Constantly naked, wading in the water, and engaged in their severe labours, they are hardy and vigorous, but almost perfect savages.

On the east side of the lake are the ruins of *Pelusium;* on the south side those of the ancient *Tanis;* and on an islet in the middle those of *Tennis.* Ascending higher in the province of Sharkieh, we find the sites of *Mendes* and of *Thmuis,* ancient cities now in ruins.

Lofty minarets point out from a distance the city of Mansourah, famous for the battle fought under its walls in 1250, in which Louis IX. was taken prisoner. We have also Mit-Gamar on the Damietta branch of the Nile; Tell-Bastah on the canal of Moez; Balbeis on that of Menedjé; Salehieh, an important military post; and El-kanka, on the borders of the desert which lies between Cairo and the Red Sea. Having passed these different places, we arrive at the point of the ancient Delta, forming now the small country of Kelyoùbéh,† rich in grain, in pastures, and in different species of trees. Its villages are large, its flocks numerous, and its inhabitants peaceable and compa-

Point of the Delta.

* Abulfeda, Tab. Egypt. p. 24. Abulpharag. Chron. Syriac. vers. la p. 529. Index Géograph. ad Bohad. vit. Salad. edit. Schultens, in voce Damiata.

† Malus, Mémoire sur l'Egypte. t. I. p. 212.

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ratively happy. To the north of Kelyoùbéh, the ground is intersected by an infinity of small canals for irrigation. The roads, though difficult, are very pleasant; several of them are skirted with rich gardens, others lead through thick groves and immense nurseries.

Interior of the Delta.

The interior of the modern Delta contains the populous city of Mehallet, surnamed el Kebir, or "the Great." Lucas, Sicard, and Pococke, considered it as, next to Cairo, the most important in all Egypt.* It is built of brick, on a navigable canal, and surrounded with fertile fields always under crop. Aboosir, the ancient *Busiris,* formerly occupied the central point of the Delta. Samanoud, or Djemnouti, the ancient *Sebennytus,*† a large town on the river of Damietta, is famous for producing numerous and excellent pigeons.

Places of pilgrimage.

The city of Tenta is at present one of the most considerable places in the interior of the Delta. It is the resort of pilgrims from different parts of Egypt, Abyssinia, the Hedjaz, and the kingdom of Darfoor. The inhabitants estimate the annual number of these pilgrims at 150,000. The object of these meetings is to pay their respects at the tomb of a saint called Seyd Ahmed-el-Bedaooi. Commerce derives from them some advantages.‡ Kenoof is the capital of the smiling and fertile province of Menoufieh, which contains also the city of Shiquin-el-Koom.

In the north of the Delta we must take notice of the monastery of Saint Geminian, a place of pilgrimage both for Christians and Mahometans. The surrounding plains are covered with tents; horse races are held; wine and good living animate the pilgrims; the festival continues for eight days; it brings to the place a great number of dancing women, who contribute much to the pleasures of the

* See Hartmann, Egyptien, p. 789.

† D'Anville, Mém. sur l'Egypte, p. 85. and Quatremère, Mém. Hist, et Géogr. I. p. 503.

‡ Savary, Lett. sur l'Egypte, t. I. p. 281, 282. Girard, in the Mémoires sur l'Egypte, t. III. p. 356—360.

occasion, pleasures which are kept up day and night. In this country, the night being cooler than the day, is more favourable to amusements.

In the corner of the Delta, adjoining to Rosetta, amidst a great number of flourishing villages, and fields covered with excellent produce, we remark the towns of Berimbal and Fouah. This last was, in the sixteenth century, the seat of that trade which has since been transferred to Rosetta.

Towns on the west o the Delta.

At the place where the canal of Alexandria joins the Nile, we find the large town of Rahmanie. On another canal is situated the small town of Damanhour, a mart for the cottons produced in the neighbouring country, and a place where, in the time of the fairs, the coarse rejoicings of the peasantry sometimes remind the spectator of the noisy orgies of ancient Egypt. Terraneh, which derives prosperity from the Natron trade, is situated on the western bank of the Nile, and above it Wardan, which is at the distance of a journey of twenty-four hours from Cairo.

Grand Cairo.

At last the plain no longer displays its uniform luxuriance. Mount Mokattan raises on one side its arid head, on the other we find Djizeh, with its eternal pyramids. Opposite to these monuments, the eye descries in succession, on the eastern banks of the great river, the cities of Boolak, New Cairo, and Old Cairo.

Boolak is the port of Cairo, where the vessels lie that come from the lower part of the Nile. It extends along the banks, and exhibits all the bustle and confusion of commerce. In the harbour of old Cairo the vessels lie that have arrived from Upper Egypt. Some of the most distinguished inhabitants of Cairo have here a sort of country seats, to which they retire during high Nile. Between these two cities is New Cairo, called by the orientals, Grand Cairo, by way of eminence. The name *Kahera*, signifies "the victorious." This city lying a mile and a half from the Nile, extends to the mountains on the east, which is nearly three miles. It is surrounded by a stone

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wall surmounted by fine battlements, and fortified with lofty towers at every hundred paces. There are three or four beautiful gates, built by the Mamelukes, and uniting a simple style of architecture with an air of grandeur and magnificence. According to Abd-el-Rashid, El-Kaherah, or Cairo, was built in the 360th year of the hegira, the 970th of our common era, by the Caliph Almanzor, (êl-Moez-le-Dym illah êbn el Mansoor,) the first of the Fatimite caliphs who reigned over Egypt. That city was afterwards joined to that of Fostat, built also by the Arabians. Salahh-ed-Dyn, or Saladin, about the year 572 of the hegira, (A. D. 1176,) built the ramparts with which it is surrounded, which are 13,116 yards in length. But in this vast extent we find only one narrow unpaved street. The houses, like all others in Egypt, are badly built of earth or indifferent bricks, but differ from most others, in being, like those of Rosetta, two or three stories high. Being lighted only by windows looking into back courts or central squares, they appear from the street like so many prisons. The aspect of Cairo is a little relieved by a number of large public but irregular squares, and many fine mosques. That of sultan Hassan, built at the bottom of the mountain containing the citadel, is very large, and has the form of a parallelogram; a deep frieze goes all the way round the top of the wall, adorned with sculptures which we call gothic, but which were introduced into Europe by the Spanish Arabians.

Origin of Cairo.

Manners and amusements.

The inhabitants of Cairo, fond of shows like all the people of large cities, amuse themselves chiefly with feats of bodily exercise, such as leaping, rope-dancing, and wrestling matches; also singing and dancing. They have buffoons, whose rude pleasantries and stale puns excite the ready laugh among an ignorant and corrupt people. The *almehs*, or female improvisatores, who amuse the rich with the exercise of their talent, differ from such as exhibit to the common people. They come to relieve the solitude of the harem, where they teach the women new tunes, and repeat poems which excite interest from the representations

which they give of Egyptian manners. They initiate the Egyptian ladies in the mysteries of their art, and teach them to practise dances of rather an unbecoming character. Some of these improvisatrici have cultivated minds and an agreeable conversation, speaking their native language with purity. Their poetical habits make them familiar with the softest and best sounding expressions, and their recitations are made with considerable grace. The *almehs* are called in on all festive occasions. During meals they are seated in a sort of desk, where they sing. Then they come into the drawing room to perform their dances or pantomimic evolutions, of which love is generally the ground work. They now lay aside the veil, and along with it the modesty of their sex. They make their appearance covered with a piece of light transparent gauze, and the spirit of the scene is kept up by tabors, castanets, and flutes. Thus we find, in all countries, dancing and music made subservient to voluptuous indulgence, and employed as the allies of licentiousness.

Town of Djizeh and the great pyramids.

On the west bank of the Nile, we find the city of Djizeh, pleasantly shaded by sycamores, date trees, and olives. To the west of this city stand the three pyramids, which, by their unequalled size and celebrity, have eclipsed all those numerous structures of the same form which are scattered over Egypt. The height of the first, which is ascribed to Cheops, is 477 feet, that is, forty feet higher than St. Peter's at Rome, and 133 higher than St. Paul's in London. The length of the base is 720 feet. The antiquity of these erections, and the purpose for which they were formed, have furnished matter of much ingenious conjecture and dispute, in the absence of certain information. It has been supposed that they were intended for scientific purposes, such as that of establishing the proper length of the cubit, of which they contain in breadth and height a certain number of multiples. They were, at all events, constructed on scientific principles, and give evidence of a certain progress in astronomy; for their sides are accurately adapted to the four cardinal points. Whe-

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ther they were applied to sepulchral uses, and intended as sepulchral monuments, had been doubted; but the doubts have been dispelled by the recent discoveries made by means of laborious excavations. The drifting sand had, in the course of ages, collected round their base to a considerable height, and had raised the general surface of the country above the level which it had when they were constructed. The entrance to the chambers had also been, in the finishing, shut up with large stones, and built round so as to be uniform with the rest of the exterior. The largest, called the pyramid of Cheops, had been opened, and some chambers discovered in it, but not to so low as the base, till Mr. Davison, British counsel at Algiers, explored it in 1763, when accompanying Mr. Wortley Montague to Egypt. He discovered a room before unknown, and descended the three successive wells to a depth of 155 feet.* Captain Caviglia, master of a merchant vessel, has lately pursued the principal oblique passage 200 feet farther down than any former explorer, and found it communicating with the bottom of the well. This circumstance creating a circulation of air, he proceeded twenty-eight feet farther, and found a spacious room sixty-six feet by twenty-seven, but of unequal height, under the centre of the pyramid, supposed by Mr. Salt to have been the place for containing the *theca*, or sarcophagus, though now none is found in it. The room is thirty feet above the level of the Nile. The upper chamber, 35½ feet by 17¼, and 18⅘ high, still contains a sarcophagus. Herodotus erred in supposing that the water of the Nile could ever surround the tomb of Cheops. In six pyramids which have been opened, the principal passage preserves the same inclination of 26° to the horizon, being directed to the polar star.

Belzoni's operations on the second pyramid.

M. Belzoni, after some acute observations on the appearances connected with the second pyramid, or that of Cephrenes, succeeded in opening it. The stones, which had

* See Walpole's Interesting Collection of Memoirs relating to European and Asiatic Turkey, 1817.

constituted the coating, (by which the sides of most of the pyramids which now rise in steps had been formed into plain and smooth surfaces,) lay in a state of compact and ponderous rubbish, presenting a formidable obstruction; but somewhat looser in the centre of the front, showing traces of operations for exploring it, in an age posterior to the erection. On the east side of the pyramid he discovered the foundation of a large temple, connected with a portico appearing above ground, which had induced him to explore that part. Between this and the pyramid, from which it was fifty feet distant, a way was cleared through rubbish forty feet in height, and a pavement was found at the bottom, which is supposed to extend quite round the pyramid; but there was no appearance of any entrance. On the north side, though the same general appearance presented itself after the rubbish was cleared away, one of the stones, though nicely adapted to its place, was discovered to be loose; and when it was removed, a hollow passage was found, evidently forced by some former enterprising explorer, and rendered dangerous by the rubbish which fell from the roof; it was therefore abandoned. Reasoning by analogy from the entrance of the first pyramid, which is to the east of the centre on the north side, he explored in that situation, and found at a distance of thirty feet the true entrance. After incredible perseverance and labour, he found numerous passages all cut out of the solid rock, and a chamber forty-six feet three inches by sixteen feet three, and twenty-three feet six inches high, containing a sarcophagus in a corner, surrounded by large blocks of granite. When opened, after great labour, this was found to contain bones, which mouldered down when touched, and, from specimens afterwards examined, turned out to be bones of an ox. Human bones were also found in the same place. An Arabic inscription, made with charcoal, was on the wall, signifying that "the place had been opened by Mohammed Ahmed, lapicide, attended by the Master Othman, and the King Alij Mohammed," supposed to be the Ottoman emperor, Mahomet I. in the begin-

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ning of the fifteenth century. It was observed, that the rock surrounding the pyramid on the north and west sides, was on a level with the upper part of the chamber. It is evidently cut away all round, and the stones taken from it were most probably applied to the erection of the pyramid. There are many places in the neighbourhood where the rock has been evidently quarried, so that there is no foundation for the opinion formerly common, and given by Herodotus, that the stones had been brought from the east side of the Nile, which is only probable as applied to the granite brought from Syene. The operations of Belzoni have thrown light on the manner in which the pyramids were constructed, as well as the purpose for which they were intended. That they were meant for sepulchres cannot admit of a doubt. Their obliquity is so adjusted as to make the north side coincide with the obliquity of the sun's rays at the summer solstice. The Egyptians connected astronomy with their religious ceremonies, and their funerals; for zodiacs are found even in their tombs. It is remarkable that no hieroglyphical inscriptions are found in or about the pyramids as in the other tombs, a circumstance which is supposed to indicate the period of their construction to have been prior to the invention of that mode of writing, though some think that the difference may be accounted for by a difference in the usages of different places and ages. Belzoni, however, says that he found some hieroglyphics in one of the blocks forming a mausoleum to the west of the first pyramid. The first pyramid seems never to have been coated, and there is not the slightest mark of any coating. The second pyramid showed that the coating had been executed from the summit downward, as it appeared that it had not in this instance been finished to the bottom.*—The following are the dimensions of the second pyramid: The basis, 684 feet; the central line down the

* Belzoni's Narrative of Operations and recent Discoveries in Egypt and Nubia, second edition, vol. I. p. 395. 425.

front from the apex to the basis, 568; the perpendicular, 456; coating from the top to where it ends, 140. These dimensions being considerably greater than those usually assigned even to the first or largest pyramid, are to be accounted for by those of Belzoni being taken from the base as cleared from sand and rubbish, while the measurements of the first pyramid given by others, only applied to it as measured from the level of the surrounding sand.

The great sphinx.

The largest of the numberless sphinxes found in Egypt, is in the neighbourhood of the pyramids of Djizeh; it was, at an expense of £800 or £900, (contributed by some European gentlemen,) cleared from the accumulated sand in front of it under the superintendence of Captain Caviglia. This monstrous production consists of a virgin's head, joined to the body of a quadruped. The body is principally formed out of the solid rock; the paws are of masonry, extending forward fifty feet from the body; between the paws are several sculptured tablets so arranged as to form a small temple; and farther forward a square altar with horns.

Pyramids of Sakhara.

Ascending the Nile we come to Sakhara, near which are many pyramids, some of them formed of brick. They are dispersed over a line of eleven miles, and are known by the name of the pyramids of Aboosir.* At the foot of this chain of mausolea, lies the ancient Memphis, which has left some of the rubbish of its immense buildings at Mitrahenoo, and probably extending to Mohannan.† The inhabitants carry on a traffic in mummies, the embalmed bodies of men and of sacred animals found in the excavations of the rocks. On the eastern bank is seen the famous mosque called Atsar-en-Neby, which is much frequented by the mussulmans of Cairo, who perform a pilgrimage to pay their respects to a stone marked with a perfect impression of the feet of the prophet. It is cover-

* Abdollatif, p. 204.

† Compare Pococke, Description, I. p. 39—293. D'Anville. Mém. p. 138. Larcher, Herodotus, II. 362—366.

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ed with a very rich veil which the priests of the mosque raise only for the gratification of those true believers who evince their piety by means of certain offerings. Atfiéh, the capital of the province of Atfieheli, is situated on the east bank, as Savary has observed, in opposition to the greater part of geographers.

Middle Egypt. Faioom.

At a distance of fifteen miles to the west of the Nile, the mountains open to form a valley leading into the Faioom, the ancient province of *Arsinöe*. The Bahr Yoosef coming from the Nile, passes through the centre of the valley in various serpentine turns, till it reaches the Faioom. In the north part of this extensive and fine district

Lake Mœris.

is lake Mœris, round which the soil is barren and wild. This lake which is now call Cairoon, is much inferior in size to what it was in ancient times, when described with enthusiasm by Strabo, as resembling the sea in its extent, in the colour of its water, and in the nature of the surrounding shores; but it is still about thirty leagues in circumference, its length being between thirty and forty miles, and is greatest breadth about six.* Its shore towards the Faioom is flat and sandy. The water of the lake has a slight saline impregnation, but it is very well fitted for human use. It contains some fish, and thus supports a few fishermen who send the fish to be sold in the different towns.

This lake has been believed to have been an artificial excavation executed by Mœris an ancient king of Egypt, who most probably only formed the canal by which it is filled from the Nile. Belzoni thinks that the water was retained by a dam at its place of entrance, and a second irrigation thus produced. This at least is considered by that traveller as the only way in which it could have been rendered subservient to agriculture, and thus it would resemble the artificial tanks which at present abound in India, but to the first irrigation itself the canal was necessary.† This canal, however, has been much neglected, and the depositions of earth

* Browne's Travels, p. 169. † Belzoni's Narrative, vol. II. p. 150—152.

brought by the Nile have elevated the surface of the whole Faioom, which, though displaying traces of its former fertility, has by the circumstances now specified, and the encroachments of the sand of the desert, been reduced to one third of its former extent. All the villages in it except four, pay a fixed *miri*, independent of what is due at the rise of the Nile. This financial arrangement must be very ancient, and appears to have been established in consequence of the great expense at which the kings of Egypt had rendered this country habitable. At the entrance of the Faioom is the town of Medineh, or Medinet-el-Faioom, (the word Medineh signifying "the City;") near to which are the ruins of the ancient *Arsinöe*. These ruins contain granite columns which are only found in this place and at the pyramids, and many of them are seen among the materials of which the town of Medineh is built. In this town there are manufactures of linen, cotton, and woollen stuffs; of oil and rose water. The last article supplies the immense consumption which takes place among the great people who keep their divans covered with it, and are in the habit of offering it to strangers. Wines also are made, but much inferior to those formerly produced in this Arsinoitic district. In this district was situated the Labyrinth so celebrated in antiquity, consisting of 3000 chambers, one half above ground, and the other half below. These have left no corresponding marks, at least none visible above ground, to render its exact situation certain. It is generally supposed to have been in the place where the ruins of the town and palace of Caroon are now found, about three miles from the western extremity of the lake. Here are to be seen the remains of a town wall, fragments of columns, and blocks of stone of middling size. The town is a mile in circumference. In the middle is the temple, which is in tolerable preservation, and is of a singular construction, different from the Egyptian, having probably been at some period altered or rebuilt. It contains no hieroglyphics. Mr. Belzoni did not believe this to be the situation of the labyrinth. That traveller visited

Peculiar land-tax.

The Labyrinth.

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some other ruins of ancient Greek towns, situated in the same neighbourhood. He found among the blocks some fragments of Grecian statues and other specimens of sculpture. When the sand is removed the roofs of habitations are found, with their wooden materials in a state of preservation. This traveller thinks that the remains of the labyrinth might perhaps be discovered if it were practicable to remove the sand, but at the same time states that several ancient remains are beneath the present level of the water, that many of them must be now deeply covered by the annually accumulating depositions from the waters of the Nile, brought by the canal of Joseph, and that the celebrated labyrinth may possibly be utterly out of the reach of discovery.* All along the west side of the lake, this traveller found a great number of stones, and columns of beautiful colours, of white marble and of granite. The Faioom contains a town called Fedmin-el-Kumois, or "the Place of Churches," from a tradition that it once consisted of 300 Christian churches, which the Mahometans converted into a town. One part of it is inhabited by Mahometans, and the other by Copts, who live on very tolerant terms with one another; but the latter are poor, and destitute of the means of educating their children.

Vostani, or Middle Egypt, contains also Benisooef, where there is a manufacture of coarse carpeting; Minieh, the capital of a province, the territory of which is elevated above the adjoining lands; Ansana, or Ensineh, where the statues found among the ruins of Antinoopolis have given rise to a notion among the Arabs that human bodies had been petrified:† Mellavi, a prettily situated town, which annually exports 400,000 sacks of wheat; and Momfaloot, known for its manufactures.

Caverns of the Thebaid.

At the town of Sahoodi is the beginning of the caverns of the Thebaid. These are quarry holes, to which the

* Belzoni, vol. II. p. 161—163.

† Yakooti, Not. et Extraits, p. 245.

anchorets, in the first ages of Christianity, retired. They have an extent of fifty-six miles; and the hieroglyphics found in them prove them to have been the work of the Egyptians, who had taken their marble from this place at a very remote period.

Ancient paintings.

The grottos, near the city of Sioot, contain very curious antique paintings in a good state of preservation. The city, one of the largest in the Saïd, is the resort of the caravans of Nubia. Its vicinity, and that of Abootish, produce the best opium.*

Among the other villages, we remark on the east bank Gau-Shenkiéh, which has succeeded to Anteopolis. Here was a magnificent temple in honour of Anteus. The porch still remains, which is supported, according to Norden, by columns, and which appears to be of one stone, sixty paces in length, and forty in breadth. This splendid work now forms the entrance of a stable, where the Turks keep their flocks.

Akmin.

Akmin, the residence of an Arab prince, has succeeded to the ancient *Shemmis* or *Panopolis*. Ancient ruins are found here on the outside of the present town. Abulfeda mentions a temple built of stones of astonishing size, which he ranks among the most celebrated ancient monuments. Mere fragments, however, are all that now remain. The modern town is handsome; very commercial, and has manufactures of cotton cloth and of pottery. It has a regular and strict police, and its territory is fertile in all sorts of produce.

Meshiéh.

Opposite to Akmin, on the west bank of the river, is the large town of Meshiéh. Here all the boats which go from Cairo to the cataracts, or from the cataracts to Cairo, stop to take in provisions, which are plenty and cheap.

Djirdjéh.

Seventeen miles to the south-east of Meshiéh, we find Djirdjéh, the capital of Upper Egypt, and lately the residence of a Bey, and the seat of a Coptic bishop. The city is modern, and owes its origin and name to a convent de-

* Notices et Extr. t. II. p. 421.

BOOK LXII.

dicated to St. George.* It has public buildings and squares, but no monuments. It is a place of trade and industry, and the territory belonging to it is fertile.

Denderah.

Denderah is a place of little consequence in itself, but travellers visit it with great interest on account of a great quantity of magnificent ruins found three miles to the west of it. Bruce, Norden, and Savary, agree in identifying it with the ancient *Tentyra*.

Its temples.

The remains of three temples still exist. The largest is in a singularly good state of preservation, and the enormous masses of stone employed in it, are so disposed as to exhibit every where the most just proportions. It is the first and most magnificent Egyptian temple to be seen in ascending the Nile, and is considered by Mr. Belzoni as of a much later date than any of the others. From the superiority of the workmanship, he inclines to attribute it to the first Ptolemy, the same who laid the foundation of the Alexandrian library, and instituted the philosophical society of the Musæum. Here, Denon thought himself in the sanctuary of the arts and sciences. The columns which form the portico are twenty-four in number, divided into four rows. Within the gate, the square is surrounded with columns with square capitals; the shafts and every part of the wall are closely covered with hieroglyphics and figures in basso-relievo. On each side there is a colossal head of the goddess Isis, with cow's ears, with a simple and almost smiling expression. The ceiling contains the zodiac, inclosed by two female figures, which extend from one side of it to the other. The walls are divided into several square compartments, each containing figures of deities, and priests in the act of offering, or immolating victims. On the top of the temple the Arabs had built a village which is now deserted and in ruins.†

The Zodiacs.

As for the zodiacs or celestial planispheres found here, and their high antiquity so much boasted, an able anti-

* Denon, Voyages, I. p. 304. Sonnini, II. p. 375.

† Belzoni's Narrative, vol. I. p. 52—57.

quary has shewn that they could not have been prior to the conquest of Alexander.*

From Djirdjeh to Thebes, the Nile forms a great bending to the east. At the elbow nearest to the Red Sea, stands Kenneh, the ancient *Cenopolis*, a town which once carried on an active commerce with Cosseir. According to Irwin, an English traveller, this city, which is still of considerable size, retains traces of many ancient customs. In the funeral processions, the women dance to the sound of dolorous music, and utter hideous cries. The festivals here, as in the Saïd in general, are held during the night, and on the river. They are concluded with a drama, partaking a little of a mythological character. The dancing women plunge almost naked into the water, where they swim about like so many nymphs or naiads.† Remains of ancient customs.

Keft seems to be the harbour of the ancient city of Kopt or Koptos, from which some authors derive the appellation given to the Coptic nation.‡ In all that country the inhabitants manufacture the vessels of light and porous clay, which by allowing the water slowly to transude so as to keep up an external evaporation, communicate a refreshing coolness to that which remains. These are used through the whole of Egypt. Keft.

The village of Luxor, that of Karnak, and some others on the eastern bank, contain more ruins. The case is the same with the western side. Savary, Bruce, Norden, Browne, and Denon, concur in speaking with admiration of the ancient ruins of these places. New researches have proved that they belong to ancient Thebes, the city with a hundred gates, known to Homer, and which was 400 Egyptian stadia in circumference.§ Diodorus, who speaks Ruins of Thebes.

* Visconti in Larcher's Herodotus.

† Irwin's journey to the Red Sea. Compare with Sonnini, Denon, and others.

‡ Michaelis ad Abulfedam, not. 153, p. 73. Hartmann, Edrisi Africa, p. 519, 520.

§ Account of Thebes in the description de l'Egypte. Monumens, vol. II.

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of Thebes as of a city already in ruins, takes particular notice of four principal temples. He speaks of sphinxes, colossal figures decorating the entrances, porticoes, pyramidal gateways, and stones of astonishing magnitude which entered into their structure. In the description given by the travellers now mentioned, and by others who preceded them, these monuments cannot be mistaken. Browne tells us, that "there remain four immense temples, yet not so magnificent nor in so good a state of preservation as those of Denderah." "It is surprising," says Norden, "how well the gilding, the ultramarine, and various other colours, still preserve their brilliancy." He speaks also of a colonnade of which thirty-two columns are still standing, of platforms, preserved galleries, and other remains of antiquity, which he has represented in his plates, and which he thinks the more worthy of attention that they appear to be the same that are mentioned by Philostratus in his account of the temple of Memnon.

Temples.

No description can give an adequate idea of these wonders of antiquity, both in regard to their incredible number and their gigantic size. Their form, proportions, and construction, are almost as astonishing as their magnitude. The forests of enormous columns, towering high above the palm trees of the country, with their capitals gracefully adorned with the *lotus*, and the shafts covered with ornamental figures, the avenues of sphinxes miles in length, the colossi placed at the numberless gates, all produce a most bewildering impression on the mind of the admiring traveller. The temple of Tentyra, being in high preservation, pleases by the beauty of its workmanship and sculpture; but at Thebes the mind is lost in a mass of colossal objects, every one of which is more than sufficient to absorb its whole attention. On the east side of the Nile, at Karnak, and Luxor, amidst the multitude of the temples there are no tombs; these are confined to the west bank. An iron sickle was lately found under one of the buried statues nearly of the shape of those which are now in use, though thicker; it is supposed to have lain there since the

invasion of Cambyses, when the idols were concealed by the superstitious to save them from destruction. Mr. Belzoni, and others, have been busily employed in uncovering and carrying away specimens of these antique remains, such as sphinxes, obelisks, and statues. On the west side of the river at Goornoo, Medinet Aboo, and Beban-el-Malook, are numberless tombs in the form of subterranean excavations, and containing many human bodies in the state of mummies, sometimes accompanied with pieces of papyrus, and other ancient curiosities. These have been the subjects of ardent research; and the trade of digging for tombs and mummies being found gainful, has been resorted to by numerous Arabs belonging to the place. The tombs and mummies of persons of condition are easily distinguished from those of the common people, by the care and expense displayed in preparing them; and from the state in which they are found many interesting conclusions are drawn illustrative of the manners and customs of the ancient Egyptians, who employed their wealth in nothing more lavishly than in their mode of disposing of the bodies of their deceased kindred.

Tombs and mummy pits.

On the east side of the river, no palaces or traces of ancient human habitations are met with; but at Medinet Aboo there are not only *Propylæa*, and temples highly valued by the antiquarian, but dwelling houses which seem to point out that place to have been once a royal residence. Mr. Belzoni found at Goornoo the ruins of a temple with octagonal columns abounding in hieroglyphics, yet so completely unique in its style, that he was led to consider it as of later date than the works of the ancient Egyptians.

With respect to the mummies, some are found in wooden cases shaped like the human body. These belonged to persons superior to the lowest rank, but differing from one another in the quantity and quality of the linen in which the body had been wrapped. The mummies of the poorest classes are found without any wooden covering, and wrapped in the coarsest linen. These differ from the for-

Description of the mummies.

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mer also in being often accompanied with pieces of papyrus, on which Belzoni supposes that an account of the lives of the deceased had been written, while a similar account was carved on the *cases* of the more opulent. The cases are generally of Egyptian sycamore, but very different from one another with respect to plainness or ornament. Sometimes there are one or two inner cases, besides the outer one. Leaves and flowers of acacia are often found round the body, and sometimes lumps of asphaltum, as much as two pounds in weight. The case is covered with a cement resembling plaster of Paris, in which various figures are cast.

Evidences of the state of the arts among the ancient Egyptians.

The whole is painted, generally with a yellow ground, on which are hieroglyphics and figures of green. The tombs of the better classes are highly magnificent, consisting of different apartments adorned with figures representing the different actions of life, such as agricultural operations, religious ceremonies, feasts, and funeral processions, these last being generally predominant. Their paintings, which are described by Mr. Hamilton, contain numerous articles illustrating the domestic habits of the Egyptians. Small idols are found lying about, and sometimes vases containing the intestines of the mummies, generally of baked clay painted, some few of alabaster; there is much pottery besides, and many wooden vessels. Mr. Belzoni found some leaf-gold beaten nearly as thin as ours. No instruments of war are found in these places. This gentleman only found an arrow with a copper point, well fixed in one end, while the other end had a notch. Figures of the scarabeus or beetle, a highly sacred animal among the Egyptians, are sometimes found executed in alabaster, verde antico, and other materials.

Linen manufactures.

From the garments in which the mummies are sometimes wrapped, it appears that linen manufactures were brought to equal perfection among the ancient Egyptians as they are now among us.* They understood the tanning of leather, of which some shoes are found. Some of

* Belzoni's Narrative, vol. I. p. 268, &c.

the leather is stained with various colours, and embossed. The art of gilding is proved to have existed among them in a state of great perfection. They knew how to cast copper, as well as how to form it into sheets. A few specimens of varnishing are found which show that this art and the baking of the varnish on clay, were in such perfection, that it appears doubtful whether it could now be any where imitated. In the art of painting, they were a little behind in not giving their figures relief by shading; but their colours, particularly the red and green, are well disposed, and produce a splendid effect, especially by candle light.* Their drawings are always in profile. Some drawings are found preparatory to sculpturing on the walls, and others in different stages of their execution. Mr. Belzoni observed some drawings executed by learners, and afterwards corrected in faulty places by a master with a different coloured chalk.—This gentleman saw in some brick buildings of the highest antiquity, evidences that the Egyptians understood the building of arches with the key-stone, though their predilection for numerous columns in the construction of their large temples, led them in these buildings to neglect the arch.† Their sculptures are executed in four kinds of stone; sandstone which is comparatively soft, a hard calcareous stone, breccia, and granite. This last is more finely polished than it could be by our present tools.

Drawing and painting.

Architecture.

The Arabs of Goornoo lead the lives of troglodytes in the entrance of the tombs, where they choose a place of convenient dimensions, and shut up the entrance between them and the tomb with clay, leaving only a hole to creep through. Here their sheep, as well as themselves are housed. They use lamps of sheep's tallow: the walls are black like chimneys, and human bones and pieces of mummies lie every where about them unheeded. They live almost naked; their children entirely so. They are oppressed and prevented from accumulating wealth, yet are reconciled by custom to their situation, and on the

The Arabs of Goornoo.

* Ibid. p. 271. † Ibid. p. 273.

BOOK XII.

whole happy. Their women are very ambitious of such jewellery as beads, coral, and pieces of coin, and look down with pity on those who have none. A mat, a few earthen pots, and a grinding stone, are all the household furniture they require. They are exceedingly expert in the art of cheating strangers, which constitutes the height of their virtue and a great part of their industry.*—The researches of Mr. Belzoni have had the effect of enriching the British Museum with some interesting specimens of Egyptian antiquity, among which are a fine obelisk from the island of Philæ, and a colossal bust called younger Memnon. The model which he has made of an Egyptian tomb is particularly gratifying to antiquarian curiosity. While he was in Egypt, he made moulds of every individual sculptured figure, and other objects in the tomb, and a tomb is built on the same scale as the original, with *fac similes* of all its contents executed with correctness in form, relief, and colouring. It is seen by candle light, and gives precisely the same effect with the original excavation.

Researches of Belzoni.

Erment or Hermonthis.

The ancient Hermonthis is represented by the village of Erment. In its vicinity is to be seen a large temple in a very good state of preservation, and the paintings of which represent, among other animals, the giraffe, an animal at present unknown in Egypt.† A learned discussion has recently confirmed d'Anville's conjecture, according to which the ancient Latopolis corresponds to the modern town of Esneh,‡ where a temple of very high antiquity is found. This town, situated on a height where vegetation is supported by artificial irrigation, was enriched by the residence of some Mameluke beys, who spent here the money which they extorted from the cultivators of the neighbourhood. Esneh displays more luxury, and a more refined industry, than the other towns of Upper Egypt. Among

* Belzoni, vol. I. p. 281—282.

† Account of Hermonthis by M. Jomard, in the Description de l'Egypte, Monumens, vol. I.

‡ Jollais and Devilliers, in the Description de l'Egypte. Etienne Quartremere, Mem. hist. sur l'Egypte, I. p. 172.

other things, a great quantity of very fine cotton stuffs and shawls called Malayéh, much used in Egypt, are manufactured here. The caravan from Sennaar brings hither also the different articles of its commerce, particularly gum arabic, ostrich feathers, and ivory. Wood in this place is extremely rare.

Caverns of Elythia.

Esneh is the last large town in Egypt. But a little higher up we find some interesting ruins. At Elythia there are two caverns, containing a great number of paintings, representing the customs and occupations of the ancient Egyptians, and particularly the various forms of ploughs, and other agricultural implements.* At Edfoo is a large temple, the corridors and mysterious passages of which are still to be seen. At an elbow of the Nile, forming a harbour, we find the ruins of *Ombos* on a hill called Koom-Ombos. In the great temple, some paintings which have not been finished, show that the Egyptians employed in their drawings the same geometrical methods with the moderns. They divided the surface into small squares,—a method which they also no doubt employed in geography.†

Ruins of Syené.

Near Assooan are found the remains of the ancient *Syené*, consisting of some granite columns, and an old square building, with openings at top. The researches made here have not confirmed the conjecture of Savary, who conceived it to be the ancient observatory of the Egyptians, where, with some digging, the ancient well might be found, at the bottom of which the image of the sun was reflected entire on the day of the summer solstice. The observations of the French astronomers place Assooan in lat. 24° 5′ 23″ of north latitude. If this place was formerly situated under the tropic, the position of the earth must be a little altered, and the obliquity of the ecliptic diminished. But we should be aware of the vagueness of the observations, made by the ancients, which have conferred so much ce-

Observations on the change of the obliquity of the ecliptic.

* Baron Costaz, Mem. sur les grottes d'Elethya, dans la Descript. de l'Egypte.

† Chabrol et Jomard, dans la Description de l'Egypte.

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lebrity on these places. The phenomenon of the extinction of the shadow, whether within a deep pit, or round a perpendicular gnomon, is not confined to one exact mathematical position of the sun, but is common to a certain extent of latitude corresponding to the visible diameter of that luminary, which is more than half a degree. It would be sufficient, therefore, that the northern margin of the sun's disc should reach the zenith of Syené on the day of the summer solstice, to abolish all lateral shadow of a perpendicular object. Now, in the second century, the obliquity of the ecliptic, reckoned from the observations of Hipparchus, was 23° 49′ 25″. If we add the semidiameter of the sun, which is 15′ 57″, we find for the northern margin 24° 5′ 22″, which is within a second of the actual latitude of Syené. At present, when the obliquity of the ecliptic is 23° 28′ the northern limb of the sun comes no nearer the latitude of Syené than 21′ 3″, yet the shadow is scarcely perceptible. We have, therefore, no imperious reason for admitting a greater diminution in the obliquity of the ecliptic than that which is shown by real astronomical observations of the most exact and authentic kind. That of the well of Syené is not among the number of these last, and can give us no assistance in ascertaining the position of the tropic thirty centuries ago, as some respectable men of science seem to have believed.*

Appearance of Syené.

Syené, which, under so many different masters, has been the southern frontier of Egypt, presents in a greater degree than any other spot on the surface of the globe, that confused mixture of monuments which, even in the destinies of the most potent nations, reminds us of human instability. Here the Pharaohs and the Ptolemies raised the temples and the palaces which are found half buried under the drifting sand. Here are forts and walls built by the Romans and the Arabians, and on the remains of all these buildings French inscriptions are found, attesting

* Compare Jomard, Description de Syene et des Cataractes, in the Description de l'Egypte.

that the warriors and the learned men of modern Europe pitched their tents, and erected their observatories on this spot. But the eternal power of nature presents a still more magnificent spectacle. Here are the terraces of reddish granite of a particular character, hence called Syenite, a term applied to those rocks which differ from granite in containing particles of hornblende. These mighty terraces, shaped into peaks, cross the bed of the Nile, and over them the river rolls majestically his impetuous foaming waves. Here are the quarries from which the obelisks and colossal statues of the Egyptian temples were dug. An obelisk, partially formed and still remaining attached to the native rock, bears testimony to the laborious and patient efforts of human art. On the polished surfaces of these rocks hieroglyphic sculptures represent the Egyptian deities, together with the sacrifices and offerings of this nation, which more than any other has identified itself with the country which it inhabited, and has in the most literal sense engraved the records of its glory on the terrestrial globe.

In the midst of this valley, generally skirted with arid rocks, a series of sweet delicious islands covered with palms, date trees, mulberries, acacias and napecas, has merited the appellation of "the Tropical Gardens." The one called El-Sag, opposite to Syené, is the *Elephantine* of the ancients; while the ancient *Philæ* is recognized in the El-Heif of the moderns. Both of them, especially the latter, filled with beautiful remains of temples, quays, and other monuments,* attest the ancient civilization of which they must have been the seat.

Islands of Elephantine and Philæ.

It is probable that the two names of *Philæ* and *Elephantine* are originally one, for *Fil* in these Oriental languages, signifies an elephant, and these islands, fertilized by the deposited slime of the river Nile, must, in ancient times, have attracted elephants by their rich vegeta-

The names of these islands.

* Jomard, Description d'Eléphantine. Lancret, Description de Philæ. Girard, Mem. sur le Nilomètre d'Eléphantine, in the Description de l'Egypte.

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tion. This ingenious conjecture explains the reason why Herodotus has not named *Philæ* in describing *Elephantine*,* so as to give the idea that he placed it to the south of the first cataract. It explains the possibility of a former kingdom of Elephantine, a kingdom which could not be confined to a single island 1400 yards long and 400 broad. Julius Africanus bears testimony to its existence and duration. The Augustine history speaks of a king of Thebes, an ally of Zenobia. These facts, taken altogether, show that the narrow valley of Upper Egypt, has, in all ages, been the retreat of small and almost independent states.

Shores of the Red Sea.

From the ever memorable scenes of the valley of the Nile, we cross narrow gorges and sterile plains covered with sand, where even the serpent and the lizard cannot find subsistence; and where no bird dares to extend his flight,—and arrive at the no less arid shores of the Red Sea. The coasts of this sea are rich in coral, madrepores, and sea sponges. Among the reefs of coral is found the port of

Cosseir.

Cosseir. The town of this name is only a collection of old houses, and large storehouses occupied from time to time by the caravans, but without any fixed inhabitants. It labours under a want of fresh water, and the only produce of the vicinity is the coloquintida.†

Desert of the Thebaid.

But the vast desert of the Thebaid, lying between this portion of the valley of the Nile and the Red Sea, is not equally sterile in every part. Mr. Irwin, who travelled from Kenné to Cairo by a road which passes obliquely the northern part of this desert, found by the sides of frightful ravines and black chasms, some valleys in which acacia bushes, covered with white and fragrant blossoms, furnished a delightful shade to the timid antelope. Some tufts of wild wheat, a date tree, a well, and a grotto called to mind the old anchorets, who chose in these solitudes to relinquish their intercourse with a perverse world.

* Jomard, loc. cit. Compare Forster, epist. ad. Michael. p. 36. Zoëga de origine obeliscor. p. 286, not. 28. Quatremère, Mém. hist. geog. I. p. 337.

† Dubois-Aymé dans la Description de l'Egypte, I. p. 193, 194.

Two similar verdant spots near the shores of the Red Sea, somewhat nearer to Suez than Cosseir, contain the monasteries of St. Anthony and St. Paul, surrounded with handsome orchards of date trees, olives, and apricots. The first of these convents has a vineyard which produces good white wine.*

Monasteries of St. Anthony and St. Paul.

A route somewhat less gloomy leads from Cairo to Suez, a town situated on the isthmus of that name. The port of Suez has only a bad quay at which small boats can scarcely land at high water, while the vessels lie at anchor in the roads. The only supply of water that the inhabitants have is one brackish spring. The sea abounds in fish, but they are neglected by the people. All the necessaries of life are wanting in this wretched place, which is situated in a parched sandy plain, about a league from the roadstead. The fortress is of a piece with the town, consisting of some towers in a half ruinous condition.

City of Suez.

In the most southerly part of this desert, about the latitude of Assouan or Syené, is the site of the ancient city of Berenice, delightfully situated in a plain almost surrounded by mountains, at a distance of five miles. Its ruins are still perceptible, even to the arrangement of the streets, and in the centre is a small Egyptian temple, which, as well as the insides of the houses, is nearly covered by the sand. The temple is built of soft calcareous stone, and sandstone. Mr. Belzoni found it adorned with Egyptian sculpture, well executed in basso-relievo, and carried away a tablet of breccia covered with hieroglyphics and figures. The soil of the plain is sandy, but appears susceptible of cultivation for pasture and other purposes. It contains some bushes which make good firewood. Mr. Belzoni calculated from the apparent extent of the ruins and the size of the houses, that this sea-port had contained a population exceeding 10,000. It has a fine harbour with a northern entrance entirely formed by nature.

The ancient Berenice.

Not far from this place are the famous mountains of eme-

* Sicard, Cartes des déserts de la Thébaïde, aux environs des monastères, &c.

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ralds, the highest of which is called Zubara, and which were visited by Mr. Bruce and Mr. Belzoni. The present Pasha of Egypt made an attempt to work the emerald mines, and had about fifty men employed as miners in the year 1818, but the mines appear to have been exhausted by the ancients. The miners were exposed to great inconvenience and risk, being supplied with all their food by caravans from the Nile, at a distance of seven days journey. From the negligence of the purveyors it was often late in arriving; and the caravans were liable to be interrupted by the inhabitants of the desert. These miners sometimes rose against their leaders and killed them. The old excavations consisted of low galleries much obstructed with rubbish, and rendered dangerous by the looseness of the roof. The passages went very far into the mountain, along the strata of mica and of marble, and emeralds were found at a great distance from the surface, and chiefly at the place where two marble strata inclosing the mica between them, met one another.

Emerald mountains.

The deserts of eastern Egypt are inhabited by some tribes of Arabs, who call themselves its sovereigns. Those who occupy the countries between the isthmus and the valley of Cosseir, receive the general name of Atoonis, or Antonis, which to us seems a corruption of Saint Antony, whose name was given to a part of these deserts. The tribes whose real names are known, are the Hooatal, who occupy the isthmus and the vicinity of Suez; the Mahazeh, who live about the latitudes of Benisooef and the monastery of St. Antony; and the Beni-Wasell who live in the latitude of Monfaloot and Minieh. All these Arabs are enemies to the Ababdeh, who rule over all the deserts from Cosseir to a distant part of Nubia.

Arab tribes.

In the topography of Egypt we must include the *oäses*, which have always formed part of this kingdom. Strabo gives an excellent definition of the word oäsis. "This," says he, "is the name given in the language of the Egyptians, to inhabited cantons, which are entirely surrounded

The Oäses.

by vast deserts, in which they resemble so many islands in the midst of the ocean." The Arabs call them Ooâdeh, and in a Coptic dictionary we are told that, in the Coptic language, that word signifies an inhabited place.* There are three to the west of Egypt to which this name is particularly applied. The term oasis is somewhat ambiguous from being indiscriminately used to signify either one of these islands, or a collection of them.

The great and the small oasis of the ancients are each composed of a certain number of spots generally separated by spaces larger than their own diameters. These places have, like Egypt itself, been described in very opposite colours by different writers. The Greeks called them "the islands of the blessed," (Μακαρων νησοι,) and they certainly appear delightful in the eyes of the traveller who has for days been traversing the parched and sterile desert. But the inhabitants of extensive cultivated countries have habitually viewed them with horror. They were often assigned as places of banishment. They have, for the most part, been described by grave writers in terms unusually poetic, and leaning to the lively or the dismal according to the prevailing bent of the respective authors. Even the physical delineations of them have often laboured under essential errors. Their physical character, as distinguished from the surrounding deserts, is chiefly derived from subterranean springs, by means of which vegetation is created and maintained, and a vegetable mould formed. The springs are accounted for by the high lands with which these oases are universally surrounded. Wells are often dug to a depth of 300 and sometimes 500 feet, and the water is drawn up from them for irrigation. M. Maillet, in describing these spots, allows his imagination to be so far deceived by what he knew of the Faioom, as to say that these oases are watered by canals connected with the Nile. Their fertility has always been deservedly celebrated. Strabo mentions the superiority of their wine;

* Langlès Voyage de Hornemum, &c. t. II. p. 243, &c.

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Abulfeda and Edrisi, the luxuriance of the palm-trees; and Vansleb, the Dominican traveller, states that they exported sweeter and finer dried dates than were to be found any where else. Sir Archibald Edmonstone states that, in one of them, he passed through a beautiful wood of acacias far exceeding in size any he had ever seen, the trunks of some of them measuring more than seventeen feet in circumference.*

The Great Oasis.

The Great Oasis, which is most to the south and the east, is formed of a number of fertile isolated spots, which lie in a line parallel to the course of the Nile, and to the mountains which bound the valley of Egypt on the west. These patches of firm land are separated from one another by deserts of twelve or fourteen hours walk; so that the whole extent of this oasis is nearly 100 miles, the greater proportion consisting of a desert. M. Poncet visited it in 1698. He says it contains many gardens watered with rivulets, and that its palm groves exhibit a perpetual verdure. According to a more recent account, it contains Egyptian ruins covered with hieroglyphic inscriptions.† The principal town is called El-Kargeh. Here are the remains of a temple, beautifully situated in the midst of a rich grove of palm trees.‡ The temple stands east and west, and a rich cornice runs all round the top. The front is covered with colossal figures and hieroglyphics. There are several chambers still entire, containing hieroglyphics in stucco, with marks of red and blue paint; but the roof of a great part has fallen in. It seems to have been protected by a triple wall; each wall had its propylon or door-way, and these are all standing. One of the *propyla* is covered over with a Greek inscription, consisting of a long rescript, published in the reign of Galba, respecting a reform in the administration of justice in this and other Egyptian territories.§

Temple of El-Kargeh.

* Sir Archibald Edmonstone's Journey to Two of the Oases of Upper Egypt, 1822, p. 44.

† Annales des Voyages, t. XXI. p. 163.

‡ Edmonstone's Journey to Two of the Oases of Upper Egypt.

§ Ibid. p. 74—98. Classical Journal, No. 45 and 46

Near El-Kargeh there is also a regular Necropolis, or cemetery, containing 200 or 300 buildings of unburned brick, chiefly of a square shape, and each surmounted by a dome similar to the small mosques erected over the graves of sheiks. One of them is divided into aisles, and has been used at one time as a Christian church, as appears from the traces of saints painted on the wall. Sir A. Edmonstone found them to be very different in form from any other cemeteries that he had seen, and represents in a plate the general aspect of this curious groupe of buildings.* At distances of a few miles some other remains of ancient temples are found. This whole oasis has always been, and still is dependent on Egypt. It serves as a place of refreshment for the caravans, being on the route from Abyssinia and from Darfoor to Egypt. Its distance from Egypt is five days journey, by the route from the Faioom to the Great Oasis, and about two days journey west from the nearest part of the valley of the Nile. Mr. Belzoni found in the adjoining desert about thirty tumuli, some large enough to contain 100 corpses: he supposes them to contain the bodies of that part of the army of Cambyses which was sent to conquer the Ammonii in the deserts of Libya, and who were left to perish in the desert, in consequence of being betrayed by their guides. But that is a mere surmise. The question naturally arises, What set of people can we suppose to have so far interested themselves about these unfortunates as to give them interment, and collect stones over their graves? Edmonstone considers them as natural hillocks.

Necropolis.

At the distance of 105 miles to the west of the great Oasis, there is another which was never visited by any European before Sir A. Edmonstone in 1819, and is not even mentioned by any ancient or Arabian geographer excepting Olympiodorus. The chief town of that Oasis is El-Cazar, beautifully situated on an eminence at the foot of a line of rocks rising abruptly behind it, and encircled by

Western Oasis.

* Sir A. Edmonstone, p. 108, 109.

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extensive gardens filled with a great variety of trees. It contains a strong sulphurcous chalybeate spring, on which the inhabitants set a high value. There are some mummy pits in the caverns of the neighbouring rocks. A few miles from El-Cazar are the remains of a temple called Daer-al-Hadjar, very much choked up with sand, like other Egyptian antiquities. But some chambers, covered with hieroglyphics, and blackened with the lamps of the ancient worshippers, are accessible, and their roof still entire. This oasis contains in all twelve villages. The climate is extremely variable in winter. The rains are sometimes very abundant, though some seasons pass without any. Violent winds are frequent, and the khamseen in May and June is severely felt. The plague is unknown, but intermittent fevers are very common during the intense heats of summer. The soil is a very red light earth, fertilized entirely by irrigation, and producing chiefly barley and rice. The inhabitants are Bedouins. They are much exposed to the incursions of the Barbary or Mogrebbin Arabs. From this to Tripoli is thirty days' journey of ten hours each. Lions and hyænas are not uncommon. At a village called Bellata, indigo is manufactured. The dry plant is put into an earthen jar with hot water, and stirred round and worked till the colour is pressed out. The liquor is then strained through the bark of a tree into another jar, where it is left for eight or nine days. The sediment is poured afterwards into a broad shallow hole in the sand, which absorbs the water, and leaves the indigo in solid cakes. It is one of the few manufactures which the pasha of Egypt has not monopolized. This western oasis is connected with the great oasis to the east by a low chain of mountains, with a table land on the top, along which travellers proceed from the one to the other. The elevation of this table land makes it comparatively cold. In the course of this track are found the dilapidated remains of a very ancient temple, called Enamoor. The inhabitants have some vague reports about other oases to the west and

Temple of Daer-al-Hadjar.

Indigo manufacture.

to the north, which, however, are otherwise alike unknown to them and to geographers.

Little Oasis.

The Little Oasis is on a road that is very little frequented; Ptolemy makes its latitude 28° 25′. Such is the position probably of its principal place. This oasis produces the best dates known in Egypt. According to Browne, it is a kind of head quarters for the Mogrebbin, or western Arabs, who extend as far as Fezzan, and even to Tripoli.—Towards the isthmus of Suez, there is an oasis called Korayn by the inhabitants of the country. It contains eight or ten hamlets with their gardens, and about 4000 inhabitants. In the same direction is Saleheyd, another oasis shaded by a wood six miles long. It contains ten villages and about 6000 inhabitants.

Oases in the eastern desert.

Government of Egypt.

Egypt, which we have described in a physical and topographic point of view, has in modern times been considered as forming part of the Ottoman empire, and, like all the great divisions of that empire, has had a pasha at the head of the government. This situation did not confer much authority, but was very lucrative. It was an object of keen solicitation at Constantinople, and generally well paid for to the intriguing characters of the Seraglio. The pasha held his place only for a year or two. When he arrived in Egypt he received great honours. He presided over the divan at public ceremonies; yet was only the idle spectator of the acts of the Mameluke Beys, those military chiefs, who held the efficient authority in their own hands, and even dismissed the pashas if they were not satisfied with their conduct. The Porte has repeatedly submitted to this indignity. The pasha had a feeble militia of ill equipped janissaries, and raw undisciplined Arnauts.

Land tenures.

The lands of Egypt were possessed as fiefs of the Grand Signior, by the *multecyms*, a sort of nobility who in Turkey Proper are called *timariots*. Almost all the fiefs of Egypt were till lately in the hands of the Mameluke soldiery and their Beys. In its internal administration, Egypt was di-

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vided into twenty-four provinces, called *Kirrats*. The command of the provinces was every year distributed among the Beys. They made their respective circuits to enforce the payment of taxes, keep the Arabs in subjection, and maintain the police. The Bey possessed of most influence genrally resided at Cairo, with the title of Sheik-el-Beled, (Sheik of the country.)

Revenues.

The revenues were of two descriptions; those which belonged to the government, and those which belonged to the Mamelukes. The first comprehended the *miri*, or territorial tax, valued either in money or in produce; the customs, or duties on inland commerce: the rent of certain mines; and the kharadjéh, or capitation tax paid by foreigners. These revenues were charged with the expenses of government, and the surplus was supposed to be sent to Constantinople; but the different agents, from the receivers up to the Beys, managed so well, that the Grand Signior seldom touched any part of all these imposts. They even charged to his account expenses incurred by repairs of buildings and canals which never were executed.

The revenues of the Beys were composed not only of whatever they received from the villages assigned to them, but also of what they could extort in numberless ways. It is generally believed that the Mamelukes drew from Egypt in public and private revenues, about a million and a half sterling. While the French were in possession of the country, they varied from year to year according to the state of the war. General Reynier values them at from twenty to twenty-five millions of franks, (from L.833,333, to L.1,041,666.)

Population.

The population of Egypt has often been rated at two millions and a half: but it has never been numbered,(*a*) and we do not even know whether this estimate includes the Arabs who occupy so great a part of the country.

Recent revolutions.

The power of the Mamelukes received from the French

(*a*) [By a tax laid on every house in Egypt, the total number of houses is said to have been recently ascertained to be 603,700; from which M. Mengin calculates the population at 2,514,400.]—Am. Ed.

invasion a serious shock, from which it has not been able to recover. The Arnauts, or Albanian troops who came to subjugate the country to the Turks, sought to seize it as a sovereignty for themselves. Egypt was distracted by numerous parties, and seemed to long for another European invasion. But a pasha of energetic character arrived, who stuck at no cruelty or perfidy in the execution of his policy, and, having brought the Mamelukes together into his palace under the pretext of an entertainment, put them to the sword. Those who had the good fortune to escape fled to Nubia, where they established themselves first at Ibrim, and attempted to make a stand. Driven from that place by the arms of the pasha, they retreated to Dongola to the number of 500, where they armed 4000 or 5000 negro slaves, and surrounded their city with a wall. At their head was Osman Bey Bardisi, who is said to have made a vow never to shave his head or his beard till he should enter Cairo in triumph. It appears however, that in consequence of the farther extension of the warlike operations of the pasha Mahomet Ali, they have been forced to leave that station, have been reduced to an insignificant number by war and hardships, and that their slender remains had found their way to the kingdom of Darfoor, where their restless character was likely to procure their speedy annihilation.

Manners and customs of the Mamelukes.

These famous Mamelukes, the tyrants of Egypt, were, as is well known, military slaves purchased by the Fatimite Caliphs, to form their body guard. Notwithstanding the influence which the Turks exercised on the civil administration, the Mameluke body maintained its own military organization, and was always recruited in the same manner. Turkish merchants brought to Egypt slaves collected from different countries. Some were Germans and Russians; the greater part were from the Caucasian countries, from Georgia and Circassia, and were generally from fifteen to seventeen years old. The Mameluke chiefs always purchased some of them. These children were employed in personal attendance on their

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masters, who gave them an education entirely military. Each styled his master father, and was regarded as a part of his family.

When a master in reward of their services gave them their freedom, they left his house, taking with them some property: often he married them to one of his slaves. They were always ready to obey him and followed him in war. The great badge of their liberty was permission to let the beard grow.

The spirit of the corps quite extinguished the sentiment of parental affection. The children of Mamelukes only succeeded to the personal effects of the father, never to his rank and power. A child reared by the women in the harem was an object of contempt. Perhaps that mode of thinking arose from an observation verified by long experience, that in Egypt foreign races degenerate like exotic plants in the second or third generation.

In general, the wives of the Mamelukes lived like those of the Osmanlis; for their husbands were equally jealous. But, as the children could never succeed to the situations or the titles of their fathers, they were less addicted to the delights of maternal fondness, and all those who could dispense with the privilege of becoming mothers took the requisite means without attaching to the act any notion of criminality.

The government is now more completely Turkish in its character than under the Mamelukes. The pasha in many of his acts disregards the Grand Signior, in this respect resembling most other Pashas placed in his commanding situation; but he does not declare himself independent. On the contrary, he lays his conquests at the feet of the Sultan's throne, as in the instance of his victory over the Wahabees, and the deliverance of Mecca, when he sent the captive chief of that formidable sect to Constantinople to give the supreme powers the pleasure of beheading him. For this he received the distinguishing title of Khan, which carries with it a perpetual immunity from the risk of judicial decapitation. His troops are chiefly Albanians,

and Syrian cavalry, and, like other Turkish armies, occasionally prone to formidable mutinies, one of which lately occurred among the Albanians, while Mr. Belzoni was in the country,* and was attended by a dreadful state of lawless disorder, more especially at Cairo and in its neighbourhood. It arose from an attempt on the part of the pasha to introduce European discipline and tactics, and it was only on abandoning that design that the soldiers were appeased, and the pasha's own security for power and life restored. The energy of that ruler, however, has created a greater degree of order in the country than had ever before existed in modern times. His police is vigilant, and Europeans can consequently travel here with safety, without being subjected to those dangers and indignities which formerly rendered a journey through Egypt a scene of perilous adventure and perpetual suffering. This regularity is kept up by a system of summary justice in cases of murder, and other lawless acts. The pasha encourages the introduction of European improvements, wherever the prejudices, and the established and immediate interests of the natives do not present an unsurmountable obstruction; but that is not always the case even in the most civilized states. He has introduced the fabrication of gunpowder, the refining of sugar, the making of fine indigo, and the silk manufacture, from which he derives great advantage. He is always inquiring after novelties in experimental philosophy, as well as the economical arts. He is very active, and constantly in motion. His leisure time is mostly spent at Soubra, a pleasure-house furnished with delightful gardens, three miles from Cairo, where one of the quondam Mamelukes who had been faithful to him, and recommended himself by his knowledge of agriculture and his general intelligence, occupies the situation of governor.

Manners and customs of the Copts.

The Copts may be regarded as the rightful proprietors of Egypt. They bear the same relation to the Arabs that the Gauls did to the Franks under the first race of the

* Belzoni's Narrative, vol. I.

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French kings. But the victors and the vanquished have not been amalgamated into one national body. The Arabs in their fierce intolerance reduced the unhappy Greeks and Egyptians to a state of oppression. They thus forced them to live separate from themselves, forming a different nation, ruined, and almost annihilated. They did not, however, peremptorily insist on the alternative of conversion or extermination and exile, as the Romish Christians did with the Arabian Mussulmans in Spain; and the talent for writing and keeping accounts which the Copts possessed proved the means of earning a livelihood, and thus keeping up the existence of their race. The Arab, who knew no art but that of war, saw that he had an interest in preserving them. The present number of Copts is estimated at 30,000 families, or according to other data 200,000 souls. They are scattered partly over the Delta; but they live principally in Upper Egypt. In the Saïde they are sometimes almost the exclusive inhabitants of whole villages. They are the descendants of the ancient Egyptians, mingled with the Persians left by Cambyses, and the Greeks left by Alexander and the Ptolemies.

Physical constitution.

According to the concurring testimonies of travellers, the Copts are distinguished by a darker complexion than the Arabs, flat foreheads, and hair partaking of the woolly character; the eyes large, and raised at the angles; high cheeks; short, though not flat noses, wide unmeaning mouths, far from the nose, and surrounded with rather thick lips; thin beards, want of grace in their shape, bandy legs ill adapted for agility, and long flat toes.*

Coptic language.

Eight or ten centuries ago the Copts spoke a peculiar language, which is still employed in their worship. It is a relict of the ancient Egyptian, mixed with some Arabic and Greek words. Though generally superseded by the Arabic in common conversation, it is still commonly

* Voyage de Denon, t. I. p. 136. Planche, 108. No. 23. Wansleb. Volney.

used in the Coptic town of Nagadéh.* Two dialects of this idiom, the Memphitic or Bahiritic and the Saidic, are known to us by different religious books written in them: a third, the Bashmooric, has occasioned great discussions among philologists, and they are not yet agreed about its nature and origin.† The general character of the Coptic language consists in the shortness of its words, which are often monosyllables, in the simplicity of its grammatical modifications, and in the circumstance of expressing genders and cases by prefixed syllables, and not by terminations.‡ Compared with all other known languages, it has only been found to have some feeble indications of an ancient connection with the Hebrew and the Ethiopian. Without any foreign derivation, or known affinities, it seems to have an origin and formation of its own. The theocracy of ancient Egypt perhaps created a new and arbitrary language for the nation, which it was the object of that body to isolate from all its neighbours. The Coptic alphabet, though evidently modelled on the Greek, contains some characters belonging to the ancient alphabet or alphabets of Egypt.§—The Copts, at first attached to the ceremonial of the Great Eastern Greek Church, were drawn off by the sect of the Eutychians or Jacobites, whose creed confounds under one the two natures of Christ. Circumcision, though not viewed as a religious ceremony, is practised among them as contributing to decorum and cleanliness. The patriarch of Alexandria gives himself out as the successor of St. Mark the evangelist, whose body, or the head at least, the Venetians pretend to have removed. Acute, sober, avaricious, and grovelling, the Copts of the towns succeed in matters of business, and

Religion.

* Information from a native Copt. Tr.

† Quatremère, Recherches sur la littérature Egypt, p. 173, 174. Idem, Mem. geogr. et histor. sur l'Egypte, I. p. 235. Munter de indole versionis Sahidicæ.

‡ Vater in Adelung's Mithridates, t. III. p. 87.

§ Zoëga, de orig. et usu obeliscorum, sect. IV. ch. 2, p. 424—463, p. 497 Tychsen, Biblioth. de l'ancienne litterature, ch.

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make themselves useful to the ignorant Mameluke and Turkish governments.

These characters furnish evidences of the identity of this nation with the ancient inhabitants of Egypt, who, under the Ptolemies and the Cesars, necessarily mingled with the Greeks, the Syrians, and the Romans. Some have derived the term Copt from the name of the city Koptos in Upper Egypt; but that city seems never to have enjoyed any distinction, being only one of the nine residences of their bishops. Others have identified the term with a Greek word signifying circumcised.* But it is not probable that the Copts themselves would adopt a nickname of that kind. The most probable opinion is, that it is identical with *Ægyptius*, which was also written Ægoptios,† and in which the first syllable is an article. It is the same with the term *kypt*, *kibt*, or *kebt*, employed by the Copts as a designation for their country.‡ Homer seems to have given the name of Ægyptos to the Nile;§ and, according to Herodotus, Thebes, the ancient capital, was called Ægyptus;‖ which at least serves to prove that this term was equally indigenous with *Chymi or Chemi*, under which the Egyptians habitually designated their country.¶

Name of Copts.

The Arabs.

After the Copts come the Arabs, the most numerous of the inhabitants of modern Egypt; distinguished by a lively and expressive physiognomy, sunk, small and sparkling eyes, a general angularity of form, short pointed beards, their lips habitually open and showing the teeth, muscular arms, the whole body more remarkable for agility than beauty, and more nervous than handsome. Such is the pastoral and

* Du Burnat, Nouv. Mém. des Missionn. II. p. 13.

† Masius in Syror. peculio. quoted by Brerewood in his Recherches sur les Langues, ch. 23. Des Cophtites.

‡ D'Herbelot, Biblioth. orient. See Kebt and Kibt.

§ Schlichthorst, Geogr. Homeri.

‖ Herod. Euterpe in princ. p. 59, editio H. Stephani.

¶ Kircheri, Prodromus Koptus, p. 293.

more civilized Arab.* The Bedouin, or independent Arab, has a wilder physiognomy. The Arab cultivators, including all who live in the country, such as the sheiks or heads of villages, the fellahs or peasants, the boufakirs or beggars, and the artisans, being more mixed and of different professions, present a character less distinctly marked.— Fellahs. The Turks have graver features and sleeker forms, the Turks. eyelids allowing little expression to the eyes, large nose, handsome mouths, good lips, long tufted beards, light complexions, short necks, a grave and indolent habit of body; and in every thing an air of weight which they associate with the idea of nobleness. The Greeks, who must now Greeks. be classed as foreigners, give us an idea of the regular features, the delicacy, and the versatility of their ancestors: they have the character of shrewdness and roguery in their transactions. The Jews, who have the same physiognomy as in Europe, but among whom some handsome individuals, particularly among the young, remind us of the head consecrated among painters as a representation of Jesus Christ, are, as every where else, devoted to the pursuits of commerce. Despised and incessantly buffetted about without being expelled, they compete with the Copts in the large towns of Egypt for situations in the customs, and the management of the business of the wealthy.

Nothing could be more curious than to see alongside of Contrast of manners. Arabs, who are a people rigidly attached to the distinctions of hereditary rank, a numerous class whose respect was all reserved for the purchased slave whose relations were unknown, and whose bravery, or other personal qualities, raised him to the first honours in the country. "I have heard," says General Reynier, "both Turkish and Mameluke officers say of persons who occupied great posts, 'He is a man of the best connections; he was purchased.' ‡ On the contrary, the sheiks of villages, as soon as they are

* Denon. Pl. 109, No. 4.

† Idem, Pl. 9, fig. 1; Pl. 107, fig. 5.; Pl. 106, No. 1.

‡ Reynier, l'Egypte, p. 68.

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rich enough to have a household, and a certain number of horsemen, get a genealogy made out, which makes them to descend from some illustrious personage.

Hereditary parties.

Besides the various alliances which subsist among tribes, the Arabs have leading parties, which may be considered as so many confederacies, and are headed by powerful sheiks. Some of these are found even in the heart of the Delta. "The inhabitants of the villages," says M. Girard,* "form two hostile parties, who do every thing in their power to injure each other. They are distinguished by the appellations of the Saad and the Hharam. In the civil wars which desolated Arabia in the 65th year of the hegira, under the caliph Yezyd-ebn-Ma'ouyeh, the two armies used these words as their respective watchwords during the night. They were the family names of their respective chiefs. The combatants and their posterity adopted them ever after, and under them perpetuated their discords. The Arabs, who have at different times come to settle in Egypt, brought along with one or other of these names a blind hatred towards the opposite faction.

Art of swimming.

Some particular traits distinguish the Egyptians from the other Orientals. A country frequently laid under water makes the art of swimming a valuable acquisition. The children learn it at play, even the girls become fond of it, and are seen swimming in flocks from village to village with all the dexterity of the fabled nymphs.† At the festival of the opening of the canals, several professional swimmers publicly perform a swimming mock-fight, and land to attack an enemy, in presence of the pasha. Their evolutions are executed with surprising vigour. They sometimes float down the river on their backs, with a cup of coffee in one hand, and a pipe in the other, while their feet are tied together with an iron chain.‡ The Egyptians are well acquainted with the art of training ani-

* Mem. sur l'Egypte, III. p. 358.

† Tott, Memoires, t. IV. p. 60. Savary, Lettres, t. I. Sicard, Nouv. Mem. II. p. 190.

‡ Vansleb. deux Voyages, p. 279.

mals. Saddled goats are seen carrying monkeys on their backs, and asses as well trained and as docile as English horses. Carrying pigeons were more common here than in any other part of the east. In the 17th century the governor of Damietta corresponded with the pasha of Cairo by means of these winged messengers.* Mallet mentions this as a practice which had fallen into disuse.† The most astonishing phenomenon of this description is the power which certain persons have of handling and governing the most venomous serpents. The modern *psylli*s are not inferior to the ancient. They suffer vipers to twine round their bodies; they keep them in the folds of their shirts; they make them go into bottles, and come out again: sometimes they tear them with their teeth, and eat their flesh.‡ The secrets on which these practices depend are unknown: they are founded on address and observation, though the Orientals ascribe them to magic.§

Carrying pigeons.

Enchanters of serpents.

In order to complete our picture of modern Egypt, we shall give a brief view of its trade and manufactures.

It is chiefly at Balass in Upper Egypt that the earthern jars, hence called balasses, are manufactured. These manufactures supply not only the whole of Egypt, but Syria and the islands of the Grecian Achipelago. They have the property of allowing the water to transude gradually, and thus keep up a refreshing coolness by its evaporation. The manufacture not being expensive, they are sold so very cheap that the poorest person can command as many as he wants, and they often enter among the materials for building the walls of houses; nature furnishes the raw clay in a state ready for use, in the adjoining desert. It consists of a fat, fine, saponaceous and compact marl, which only requires moistening and working up to become pliable and tenacious, and the vessels which are turned from it,

Pottery.

* De la Valle, p. 128. Monconys, p. 295.

† Mallet, Descript. de l'Egypte, II. p. 267.

‡ Idem, I. p. 132. Savary, Thevenot.

§ Hasselquist's Travels, p. 76—80. (in German.)

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after being dried and half baked in the sun, are, in a few hours, completed by the heat of a slight straw fire. They are set up in rows, which are described by all travellers in Egypt. Such is the stability of the habits, customs, and arts in this singular country, that M. Denon observed jars of the same sort, of the same shape, employed for the same purposes, and set on the same triponds in hieroglyphic paintings, and in representations contained in manuscripts.

Antiquities of is art.

In Sioot and the neighbourhood, a considerable quantity of linen is manufactured; at Djirdjeh, Farshyoot, and Kenneh, cotton stuffs and shawls of a much closer fabric. The cotton manufactured in these three places is brought from Syria and the Delta, that which is produced in the country being only employed at Esneh, where the handsomest cotton cloths of Upper Egypt are made. From this part of the country there is a considerable exportation of grain, linen, and cotton stuffs, and different sorts of oil. It receives in exchange rice and salt from the Delta, soap, silk, and cotton stuffs from Syria, and different European articles, such as iron, lead, copper, woollen cloths, and tar.

Weing.

It is only in Faioom that rose water is made. When the roses are plenty, thirty sets of apparatus are employed at Medineh for distilling them. The apparatus is very simple. The same place also contains manufactures of woollen, cotton, and linen stuffs and shawls. Sometimes 8000 shawls are exported from this place in a month.

Rose water.

The caravans from Abyssinia travel northward through the desert, on the east of the Nile, as far as Esneh. They bring ivory and ostrich feathers; but their principal trade consists in gum and young slaves of both sexes. Cairo is the ultimate destination of the latter, and the place where their sales are made. They carry home Venetian glass manufactures, woollen dresses, cotton and linen stuffs, blue shawls, and some other articles which they purchase at Sioot and at Kenneh. The Ababdeh and Bisharieh tribes also come to Esneh for metals, utensils, and such grain as they require.

Abyssinian caravans.

They sell slaves, camels, acacia gum which they gather in their deserts, and the charcoal which they make from the acacia trees; but the most valuable commodity which they bring is senna, which they gather in the mountains between the Nile and the Red Sea, as high as Syene, and farther south, where it grows without culture. The inhabitants of Goobanieh, a village four hours walk below Syene, on the left bank of the Nile, form, every year, in company with the Ababdehs, a caravan, which goes to the interior of the deserts which lie south-west from the first cataract to collect alum, which was formerly a considerable part of the exports of Egypt.

Commerce of Cosseir.

The trade to Cosseir, on the shore of the Red Sea, is only a feeble remnant of that by which Egypt was once enriched. The exports are wheat, flour, barley, beans, lentils, sugar, carthamom flowers, oil of lettuce, and butter. The importations are, coffee, cotton cloth, Indian muslins, English silks, spices, incense, and Cashmere shawls. This trade is conducted by persons going on their pilgrimage to Mecca.

Caravans from Darfoor.

Two caravans arrive every year from Darfoor, each composed of 4000 or 5000 camels, led by 200 or 300 persons, who bring to Sioot and to Cairo elephants' teeth, rhinoceros' horns, ostrich feathers, gum-arabic, tamarinds, natron, and slaves, the number of which averages 5000 or 6000 annually, chiefly young girls or women. One author says that the number of slaves sometimes amounts to 12,000, and that of the camels to 15,000.

Other caravans.

Egypt also receives caravans from Syria, from Barbary, and from Sennaar. Those from Syria bring cottons, tobacco, silk and woollen stuffs, wax, honey, dried raisins, and other objects of consumption. The caravans from Sennaar are smaller than those from Darfoor, and bring nearly the same articles, together with civets, and the teeth and skins of the hippopotamus.*

* Mém. sur l'Egypte, IV. p. 81.

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Such is the present languishing condition of Egypt, that celebrated country which was once covered with towns, temples, palaces, obelisks and pyramids. Yet Egypt is still a civilized and happy country in comparison of some others in Africa which are immediately to come under our review.

*Table of Geographical Positions, astronomically observed by M. Nouet.*

| Places. | Long. E. from Lon. | | | Lat. N. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | deg. | min. | sec. | deg. | min. | sec. |
| Aboo-el-Sheik, (on the canal of Soveys) | 31 | 52 | 16 | 30 | 31 | 10 |
| Alexandria, (at Pharos) | 29 | 55 | 45 | 31 | 13 | 5 |
| Antinoe, (its ruins) | 30 | 55 | 29 | 27 | 48 | 15 |
| Belbeys | 31 | 33 | 8 | 30 | 24 | 49 |
| Beni-Sooef | 31 | 13 | 0 | 29 | 8 | 28 |
| Damietta | 31 | 50 | 0 | 31 | 25 | 0 |
| Denderah, (temple) | 32 | 40 | 57 | 26 | 8 | 36 |
| Dybeh, (mouth of Lake Menzaleh) | 32 | 8 | 0 | 31 | 21 | 24 |
| Edfoo, (town and temple) | 32 | 53 | 59 | 24 | 58 | 43 |
| Esne, (town and temple) | 32 | 29 | 56 | 25 | 17 | 38 |
| Djirdjeh | 31 | 55 | 42 | 26 | 20 | 3 |
| Hoo | 32 | 21 | 12 | 26 | 11 | 20 |
| Isle of Philœ, (temple above the cataracts) | 32 | 54 | 31 | 24 | 1 | 34 |
| Cairo, (house of the Institute) | 31 | 18 | 45 | 30 | 2 | 21 |
| Karnac, (ruins of Thebes) | 32 | 39 | 49 | 25 | 42 | 57 |
| Koom-ombos, (temple) | 32 | 59 | 24 | 24 | 27 | 17 |
| Lesbeh | 31 | 47 | 35 | 31 | 29 | 8 |
| Longsor, (ruins of Thebes) | 32 | 39 | 53 | 25 | 41 | 57 |
| Medinet-Aboo (ruins of Thebes) | 32 | 37 | 47 | 25 | 42 | 58 |
| Minieh | 30 | 49 | 37 | 28 | 5 | 28 |
| Omfarege, (mouth of Lake Menzaleh) | 32 | 31 | 54 | 31 | 8 | 16 |
| Palace of Memnon, (ruins of Thebes) | 32 | 38 | 19 | 25 | 43 | 27 |
| Pyramid north of Memphis | 31 | 12 | 17 | 29 | 59 | 5 |
| Kaoo-el-Koobra, (town and temple) | 31 | 32 | 9 | 26 | 53 | 33 |
| Kenneh | 32 | 45 | 15 | 26 | 9 | 36 |
| Rosetta, (north minaret) | 30 | 28 | 50 | 31 | 24 | 34 |
| Suez | 32 | 35 | 50 | 29 | 58 | 37 |
| Saleh-hiyeh | 32 | 0 | 15 | 30 | 47 | 30 |
| Syene | 32 | 0 | 4 | 24 | 5 | 23 |
| Sioot | 31 | 13 | 35 | 27 | 10 | 14 |
| Tannis, (island of Lake Menzaleh) | 32 | 12 | 30 | 31 | 12 | 0 |
| Tower of Aboo Gir | 30 | 7 | 18 | 31 | 19 | 44 |
| Tower of the Jannissaries, (Cairo) | 31 | 19 | 56 | 30 | 2 | 3 |
| Tower of Boghaseh | 31 | 53 | 36 | 31 | 21 | 41 |
| Tower of Boghaz | 31 | 52 | 22 | 31 | 30 | 7 |
| Tower of Maraboo | 29 | 49 | 56 | 31 | 9 | 9 |

We shall not undertake to give a comparative tabular view of the ancient and modern divisions of Egypt. For such a task we have not sufficient data. The reader who wishes for such information as history affords on this subject, may consult a work by the learned M. Champollion, entitled, "l'Egypte sous les Pharaons."

# BOOK LXIII.

## NUBIA, ABYSSINIA, AND THE COASTS OF BEJA AND HABESH.

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WE have described the region of the lower Nile, with a minuteness corresponding to its great celebrity. Our survey of the countries situated on the higher parts of the course of this river will be somewhat more rapid. In the present state of our knowledge, it is convenient not to include in this division the countries yet unknown which are watered by the Bahr-el-Abiad, before it joins the Nile of Abyssinia. The region now to be described, being thus restricted, will correspond to the *Æthiopia supra Ægyptum* of the ancients, a country concerning which ancient history furnishes us with some scattered lights, such as the accounts contained in the history of Herodotus, the researches of Strabo, the travels of Artemidorus and Agatharchides, to which are to be added the inscriptions of Adulis, which are monuments of the expeditions of one of the Ptolemies, or of an Abyssinian king,* and the information given by Pliny the naturalist, as stated in our History of Geography.

Region of the Upper Nile.

NUBIA. Its boundaries.

The first country which is entered by a person ascending the Nile, above the first cataract, is NUBIA, a most extensive region, the boundaries of which are vague and un-

* Compare the account in the History of Geography with the observations of Mr. Salt, and with Silvestre de Sacy's Mém. sur l'Inscription d'Adulis.

certain. Bakooi makes the road along the east bank of the Nile,* thirty days journey in length. Edrisi, who most probably includes Sennaar under the same name, says that two months are required for crossing Nubia,† an account which in that case coincides with the journals of Poncet and Bruce.

Climate.

While authors differ widely in several particulars relative to Nubia, they all agree respecting the physical aspect of the country. From January to April it is scorched up with insupportable heats. The rainy season lasts from June to September, with frequent irregularities. The thermometer sometimes reaches 119 degrees of Fahrenheit, and the burning sands render travelling impracticable except by night.‡ The high lands consist entirely of frightful deserts.

Deserts.

That which is called the Desert of Nubia extends on the east of the Nile from Syené to Gooz. The traveller constantly marches either over deep sand or sharp stones. In several places the ground is covered with a stratum of rock-salt, or studded with masses of granite, jasper, or marble. Now and then we find a grove of stunted acacias, or tufts of colocynth and of senna. The traveller often finds no water to allay his thirst, except what is brackish and putrid, for the murderous Arab, the sanguinary Bisharеen, the fanatical Jahalee, the Takakee, and the Shaigee, lie in ambush near the few springs which the country contains.§ The western desert, less arid and less extensive, is known by the name of Bahiooda. Between these two solitudes, condemned by nature to an unvarying and utter sterility, lies the narrow vale of the Nile, which, though deprived of the advantages of regular inundations in consequence of the height of the surface above the river, has some districts, and more particularly islands, in which a high degree of fertility rewards the industry of those

* Notes et Extr. de MSS. de la Biblioth. du Roi, II. 396.

† Edrisi Clim. I. 4. Hartmann, Comm. de Géog. Edrisi, p. 50.

‡ Abulfeda, Africa, ed. Eichorn. Arab. p. 29.

§ Bruce, I. VIII. ch. 11 et 12.

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who raise by artificial means the waters of the river.* The southern parts of Nubia, watered by the Tacazzé, the Bahr-el-Azurek, and the Bahr-el-Abiad, present a very different appearance. Under the shade of close forests, or on the verdant surface of vast meadows, are seen sometimes the heavy buffalo, sometimes the fleet gazelle. Frequently, however, the extreme heat, the rains, and the formidable swarms of the saltsalya fly, spread desolation over these countries, which belong to the kingdom of Sennaar. The dourra and the bammia, (the last of which is described by Prosper Alpinus,) are the principal sorts of grain, though wheat and millet are also cultivated. Two sorts of senna are exported; but the sugar cane, which abounds along the course of the Nile, is not turned to any account. The ebony tree predominates in the forests,† which also contain many species of palms.

Vegetable species.

The *Acacia vera* and *Mimosa nilotica*, from which the gum is obtained, extend from Egypt to Darfoor. Pliny seems to reckon the large wild cotton tree among the trees of Nubia.‡ About the ancient Meroë apple trees, according to Strabo, ceased to prosper, and the sheep were

Animals.

covered with hair instead of wool.§ Elephants, rhinoceroses, gazelles, ostriches, and all the African animals, perhaps even the giraffe,‖ are to be seen in Nubia. The gold

Minerals.

of Sennaar is sometimes mentioned; but, though Ibn-al-Ooardy says that there are mines of this metal in Nubia, it is impossible to determine their situation. The famous mountain of emeralds, which was said to be in Nubia, belongs to its northern part, or rather to the south of Egypt. It is called Zubarah, and is not far from the Red Sea. Of these mines, in their present state, we have already given an account. Strabo and Diodorus tell us that the

* Poncet, Lettres édif. t. IV.

† Plin. l. VI. chap. 30.

‡ Idem, lib. XIII. cap. 12.

§ Strabo, lib. XVII. p. 565. Casaub.

‖ Bar. Hebræus. cité par Bruns.

ancient *Meroë*, which corresponds with Southern Nubia, contained mines of gold, of copper, and of iron.*

Divisions.

It would be vain to attempt to give any precise account of the political subdivisions of a country so little known, and involved in so wild a state of anarchy. We shall merely give a few rapid sketches on the subject. Turkish Nubia extends from Assooan, or *Syené*, to the fort of Ibrim, (or Ibrahim,) which Father Sicard dignifies with the title of its capital.† The power of the beys or pashas of Egypt over this remote district, has always been uncertain and temporary. At present the energetic and enterprising Pasha Mahomed Ali has extended his arms to a great distance up the Nile, having subdued the whole of Nubia Proper, and even taken Sennaar.

Turkish Nubia.

Sketches of topography and antiquities.

Egyptian Nubia contains, along the banks of the Nile, numerous monuments of ancient art, as temples, obelisks, and statues. Some of these monuments are Egyptian, others Grecian.

At Taffa, the granite rocks rise prerupt on each side of the Nile, the chain crossing it at this place, and appearing as if a passage had been cut through it for the river. At Katabishé there are ruins of some Sarasenic houses, and an elegant Egyptian temple, thought to have been built in the time of the Ptolemies; in that neighbourhood the ruins of a small Grecian temple are observed, which has been overturned by violence. Lately a golden Grecian lamp was found buried under the ruins.

Deir.

Deir, the capital of lower Nubia, consists of several groups of houses, built of earth intermixed with stones.

Ibrim.

Ibrim is built on a rock at the river's edge, but the houses have been deserted ever since the Mamelukes left the place on their retreat to Dongola.

Hogos.

Mr. Belzoni is the first recent traveller who has ascended the river beyond Ibrim. He found the remains of a well constructed tower on the island of Hogos. The people here are exceedingly poor and dirty, sometimes eating the

* Diod. Sic. I. p. 29, p. 145. Wess.

† N. Mém. de la Comp. de Jesus, II. 186.

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raw entrails of animals, after dipping them once slightly in water. At Ebsambool are some temples and colossal statues. Some of the latter cut out of the solid rock, are thirty feet high. The inhabitants of the place and neighbourhood lead the most abject lives that can be imagined. The Cachef and his servants make the freest use of the property of the people, taking without ceremony whatever they want. If refused they use force, and if resisted they murder the opponent. In this manner all the time of the rulers is spent; and in this manner they live. Their purchases and sales are entirely conducted by barter, and Mr. Belzoni found it almost impossible to convince them that money could procure dourra or other articles from Syené and other distant places.

Ebsambool.

At Ooadi-Halfa, above Ebsambool, is the second cataract. The rock forming it is black, probably basaltic. It seems not to be navigable at any season. The high lands of northern Nubia are inhabited by two almost independent nomade tribes. One of them lives on the west side of the Nile, and is called the Barabras. They are a very lean race of men, apparently destitute both of fat and of flesh, and made up of nerves and tendons, with a few muscular fibres, more elastic than strong. Their shining skin is of a transparent black and brown. They have no resemblance to the negroes of the west of Africa. Their hollow eyes sparkle under an uncommonly projecting eye-brow, their nostrils are large, the nose sharp, the mouth wide, yet the lips thin; the hair of the head and beard is thin and in small tufts. Wrinkled at an early age, but always lively, always nimble, they only betray their age by the whiteness of their beards. Their physiognomy is cheerful, and their dispositions lively and good humoured. In Egypt they are generally employed to watch the magazines and wood-yards. They dress in a piece of white or blue woollen cloth, earn very little, subsist on next to nothing, and are always attached and faithful to their masters.*

Barabras.

* Costaz, Mém. sur les Barabras, dans la Descript. de l'Egypte. Denon. Pl. 107, fig. 4. Thevenot, Voyage, p. I. l. 2. ch. 69.

The deserts situated to the east of the Nile, from the valley of Cosseir till we proceed far south in Nubia, are occupied by the Ababdés. They are enemies to all the tribes which live between the valley of Cosseir and the isthmus of Suez. The Ababdés differ entirely in their customs, language, and dress, from the Arabs found in Egypt. They are black, but have the same form of head as the Europeans.* Their heads are uncovered, but their hair is worn long. Their clothing consists of a piece of cloth fixed over the haunches. They anoint their bodies, and particularly their heads, with suet. They have no fire-arms, and few horses. They rear a sort of camel which they call *aguine*, which is smaller, better made, and more active than the common kind. Their warlike amusements are animated by a music less pensive and dull than that of the Egyptians. The same individual is both poet and musician, and he accompanies his song with a sort of mandoline. They are Mahometans, but not rigid. They bury their dead by covering the bodies with stones.

The Ababdés.

The middle part of Nubia contains a state or kingdom concerning which we have little recent information. It goes under the name of Dongola, which is also the name of the capital,—a city rich and commercial, and containing 10,000 families, according to the Arabian authors of the middle age.† Poncet found the city ill built, the cabins formed of clay, and the intervening spaces encumbered with sand-hills.‡ The castle which stands in the centre of the city is spacious but poorly fortified, though sufficient to keep the Arabs in check. The fields, watered by the Nile, exhibit in the month of September an agreeable verdure. The people conjoin great ferocity with great cunning. The palace, like those of all the kings of Africa, is a vast cottage. According to Thevenot, the king of Dongola paid a tribute in cloth to the

State of Dongola.

* Mém. sur l'Egypte, III. p. 230.

† Leo Africanus, VII. cap. 17. Bakooi, &c.

‡ Poncet. Lettr. édif. IV. p. 8. (*N.B.* Gondala is a typographical error.)

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king of Sennaar. The inhabitants export slaves, gold dust, and ostrich feathers, and, according to Leo, musk and sandal-wood. They are Barabras, or, as Thevenot calls them, Barberins. Persons of rank here go bare-headed, their hair being disposed in tresses, and their whole clothing consists in a rude vest without sleeves. They are very skilful riders, and have beautiful horses. They profess the religion of Mahomet, and continually repeat its brief and comprehensive creed, but know nothing farther. Their lives are extremely dissolute. The Mamelukes, when they fled from Egypt, lately took possession of Dongola, but subsequently Mahomed Ali, Pasha of Egypt, carried his victorious arms to this part of Nubia, and added it to his dominions.

KINGDOM OF SENNAAR.

Ascending to the confluence of the great Nile with the Nile of Abyssinia, we enter the territories of the kingdom of Sennaar, which occupy the space assigned by the ancients to the famous empire of *Meroë*, the origin of which is lost amidst the darkness of antiquity. Many writers, both ancient and modern, have considered it as the cradle of all the religious and political institutions of Egypt,* and it must at least be admitted to have been a very civilized and a very powerful state. Bruce thought that he saw the ruins of its capital under the village of Shandy, opposite to the isle of Kurgos. The distances given by Herodotus and Eratosthenes coincide very well with that position; and the island which, according to Pliny, formed the port of Meroë, is found to correspond with equal probability.

Inhabitants.

The Nubians.

The *Nubæ* of Ptolemy lived more to the west. They probably extended to the countries adjoining the Nile, above the fall of Meroë. These people are a gentle sort of Negroes, with small features, woolly hair, flat noses, speaking a soft sonorous language totally distinct from that of their neighbours. They are idolaters, or rather, ac-

* Heeren, Ideen uber Politick, &c. I. 262, &c. 1st edition.

cording to Bruce, they appear to have preserved some traces of the ancient religion of the Sabeans. They worship the moon, and always do homage to that luminary while she shines during the night. At new moon they issue from their dark huts, and pronounce some forms of religious words. They seemed to Bruce to show less respect to the sun. The Nubæ resemble the Mahometans in being circumcised, but they keep flocks of pigs, and eat pork freely. They probably were once subdued by the Arabs; for, according to Bakooi,* the Nubians had a king of the ancient family of the Homerites. It is possible, however, as this same author affirms, that they may have been Christians. The Christian religion was lost for want of priests, which they could no longer procure from Egypt, and with which the Abyssinians refused to supply them.†

The Shillooks.

In 1504, a negro nation, till then unknown, leaving the west bank of the White River, or Bahr-el-Abiad, embarked on this river, and came down to invade the lands of the Nubian Arabs. The event of a very bloody battle proved favourable to their cause. These negroes called themselves Shillooks. They demanded that the Arabs should give them every year one half of their flocks. On this condition, they allowed the Arabs to retain their own chief, under the title of *wed-agid*, and lieutenant of their *malek*.

City of Sennaar.

On the Blue River, or Abyssinian Nile, the Shillooks founded the city of Sennaar, which, according to Poncet,(*a*) contained 100,000 inhabitants.‡ It is a commercial place, and sends caravans to Egypt, to Nigritia, and to the port of Jidda in Arabia. The brick walls of the *malek's* palace, and some Persian tapestry displayed in the interior, announce the magnificence of a great sovereign for this country. The town is nearly on the same level with the river, being only as high above it as to prevent the danger of being

* Not. et Extr. de MSS. de la Biblioth.

† Alvarez, Hist. Ætheop. c. 37. ‡ Poncet, p. 25 and 36.

(*a*) [Poncet visited Sennaar in 1699: in 1821 it was visited by Mr. English, who describes it as "almost nothing but a heap of ruins." He estimates it at about three miles in circumference; the greater part of the space being covered with the ruins of houses built of brick, either burnt or dried in the sun. He supposes the whole number of houses now standing not to exceed 400, few of which are of more than one story.]—Am. Ed.

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flooded. The soil of the adjoining district, for a breadth of two miles on each side of the river, is uncommonly rich and fertile, and produces great abundance of food. But the country is unhealthy to men, and no domestic animals can live in it. The latter are reared on the neighbouring sands. The king of Sennaar cannot maintain a single horse, while the sheik of the desert has a regular establishment of cavalry.

To the north of Sennaar we find Gherri, the ancient capital of the Nubians; Halfaya, which is built of hewn stone; Harbagi, in a wooded country, where the yellow and blue flowers of a very thorny acacia exhale their perfumes, and where the scene is animated with paroquets, and a thousand other birds. To the south we find Gisine, in the midst of a forest of *doomy* palms, the leaves of which are used for making sails and cordage, while their fruit contains a juice very pleasant to drink;* then Deleb; and, after crossing a forest of tamarind trees, we find Serke, a town of 700 houses on the frontier of Abyssinia.

Government.

The Shillooks were originally idolaters, but their intercourse with the Egyptians brought them over to Mahometanism. Their government is despotic, yet mild. They attach to the title of slave the same honour which in Europe is connected with that of a nobleman. The kingdom is hereditary, descending to the eldest son, and all the other sons are put to death. A council of the grandees of the state has the power of deposing the sovereign, or condemning him to death. During his reign, there is one of his relations whose office it is to act the executioner's part in case of his condemnation, and who has the title of the royal hangman. It is a place of great distinction; and the individual who holds it lives on terms of sufficient cordiality with the prince to whom he stands in so singular a relation. Some of them have had repeated occasion to exercise their function. The army consists of 1800 Shillook cavalry, and 12,000 Nubians armed with lances. The

On the name of Fungi.

name of Fungi by which the Shillooks are called, is, according to Bruns, only an honourable title of Arabic de-

* Poncet, p. 47.

rivation* signifying victors. But it is worthy of remark, that the Portuguese give the name of Funchens to a nation in the neighbourhood of Congo. Sennaar, however, is included among the recent conquests of the Pasha of Egypt; and if the former government, with its laws and arrangements, is permitted to remain, it is only as the vassal of that Turkish power.

Southern provinces.

According to some geographers, we must also comprehend in Nubia three provinces situated to the south of Sennaar. The first is El-Aice, situated on both sides of a great river, a country peopled by fishermen, who in their small barks boldly pass the cataracts.

Kordofan extends along the Bahr-el-Abiad. There a trade is carried on in slaves, brought from Dyre and from Tegla, unknown countries of the interior.

Lastly, the country of Faznelo is bounded on the east by the Bahr-el-Azurck, or the Nile of Abyssinia. The public revenues here are paid in gold or in slaves. These three countries, however, seem to undergo a frequent change of masters, and, according to Browne, Kordofan was about twenty years ago subject to the sultan of Darfoor.

We might have now given a sketch of the coast of Nubia on the Arabian Gulf, but several reasons, both geographical and historical, have determined us to connect that territory in the same description with the coast of Abyssinia, which will be found in a subsequent part of the present Book.

Abyssinia.

To the south of Nubia are situated the extensive provinces which belong, or have belonged, to the kingdom of Ethiopia, more generally known by the name of Abyssinia. We have not much certain and authentic information respecting this country. The accounts given by the Arabian geographers, Bakooi, Edrisi, and most particularly by Macrizi,† show us that the Mahometans have had little connection with this Christian empire. The modern geo-

* Afrika, t. II. p. 31.

† Bruns, Afrika, II. 49—57.

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graphy of the country is almost entirely derived from the travels of the Portuguese, Alvarez, Bermudez, Payz, Almeïda, and Lobo, carefully extracted by their countryman Tellez, and learnedly commented on by the German Ludolf, the Strabo of these countries. To this we must add a few notices furnished by Thevenot and Poncet. An important narrative by Petit-la-Croix, dated in 1700, partly drawn up from information furnished by Abyssinians whom the author had known in Egypt, exists in manuscript in the library at Leyden.* At last in the eighteenth century appeared the famous work of Mr. Bruce, the best known, though not the purest of all our sources of information. It has since received confirmation in some points, and correction in others, from Mr. Salt.

It is with these insufficient materials that geography has to make out a description of Abyssinia. This description must therefore be vague and incomplete. Our account of the situation and extent of the country does not admit of rigorous precision; for the limits which separate the Abyssinians from Nubia on the north, from the Galla on the south-west and south, and from the kingdom of Adel on the south-east, constantly depend on the uncertain issue of frequent appeals to arms. If we include in it the coasts of the Red Sea, and the provinces occupied by the Gallas, we may give Abyssinia a length of 560 miles, from the 15th to the 7th parallel of north latitude, and a breadth of 640 miles from the 32d to the 42d degree of east longitude. Taken in this geographical and historical acceptation, Abyssinia would have an extent of 322,000 square miles. This country corresponds to the southern part of the *Æthiopia supra Ægyptum* of the ancients, and, although we are certain that the denomination of Ethiopians is of Greek origin, and has been employed to signify every people of a deep complexion, the Abyssinians still call themselves *Itiopiawan*, and their country Itiopia. But

Situation and extent.

Different names.

* Biærnstahl, Voyage, p. 391. (in German.) Bruns, Afrika, II. 65.

they prefer the name of Agazïan for the people, and that of Agazï, or Ghez for the kingdom. The name of Habesh, given to them by the Mahometans, and from which the Europeans have coined such names as *Abassi* and *Abyssini*, is an Arabic term, signifying, "a mixed people," and the Abyssinians scornfully disclaim it.*

Considered as a whole, Abyssinia forms a table land gently inclined to the north-west, and having two great steeps on the east and on the south; the first towards the Arabian Gulf, and the second towards the interior of Africa. Do these two steeps consist of regular chains? or are they only crowned with isolated mountains, like Lamalmon and Amba-Gedeon? These are questions which we are not yet prepared to answer. Travellers only speak in a general way of the extraordinary configuration of these mountains. They shoot up almost every where in sharp peaks, and are ascended by means of ropes and ladders. The rocks resemble the ramparts and traces of ruined towns. Father Tellez pretends that these mountains are higher than the Alps,† but we find them nowhere capped with snow, except, perhaps, the Samen mountains in the province of Tigre, and that of Namera in Gojam.‡ Mountains.

The number of rivers which take their rise in this country is one evidence of its great elevation. Beginning in the west, the Maleg, the Bahr-el-Azurek, or Abyssinian Nile, (the *Astapus* of the ancients,) the Rahad, which receives the Dender, and the Tacazzé, which receives the Mareb, all contribute to form or to augment the great Nile, while the Hanazo and the Hawash disappear under the sand before reaching the Arabian Gulf. The Zebée runs perhaps to the coasts of Zanguebar. According to Petit-la-Croix, it is lost in the sands of the southern plateau.§ We must also take notice of the great lake Dembea, which, like all Rivers.

* Ludolf, Hist. l. I. ch. I. Comment. p. 50.

† Ludolf, Hist. I. 6.

‡ Lobo, Hist. Æth. I. p. 141. Hist. de ce qui s'est passé, &c. p. 131.

§ Bruns, Afrika, II. 87.

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those of the torrid zone, changes its size with the revolutions of the seasons.

Temperature.

In general, the rivers, the rains, and the elevation of the surface, render the temperature much cooler than that of Egypt and of Nubia. The heat of the atmosphere, judging by the feelings of the human body, is much less than that indicated by the thermometer.* Some of the provinces are even more temperate than Portugal or Spain; but in the low villages, the effects of a suffocating heat are combined with those of the exhalations of stagnant water, to give origin to elephantiasis, ophthalmia, and many fatal diseases.†

Seasons.

The winter in Abyssinia, in so far as weather is concerned, begins in June, and continues till the beginning of September. The rain, often attended with thunder and dreadful hurricanes, obliges the inhabitants to intermit all their labours, and puts a stop to all military operations.‡ The other months of the year are not entirely exempt from inclement weather. The finest are those of December and January. This is the general character of the climate, particularly in the interior of the country. But the mountainous surface of Abyssinia gives rise to many variations. In the east, on the borders of the Red Sea, between the shore and the mountains, the rainy season begins when it is over in the interior. This singularity greatly surprised Alvarez, a Portuguese, who, at Dobba, found himself transported at once from winter to summer.§

Mineral productions.

Abyssinia, being full of mountains, cannot be destitute of minerals. According to the manuscript of Petit-la-Croix, it contains many mines of iron, copper, lead, and sulphur,‖ but no mention is made of them by travellers. The wash-

* Blumenbach's Notes on Bruce, V. 274.

† Alvarez, Hist. c. 41. c. 67. Bruce, &c.

‡ Lobo, Hist. I. 101. Bruce, &c.

§ Hist. c. 47.

‖ Bruns, II. 117.

ing operations of Damota, and the shallow mines of Enarea, produce a gold of extreme fineness.* Bruce informs us that the finest gold is found in the western provinces, at the feet of the mountains of Dyre and Tegla. The great plains, covered with rock-salt, at the bottom of the eastern mountains, have excited the admiration of travellers. The salt here forms crystals of uncommon length.

Plants.

In a mountainous humid country, warmed by a vertical sun, the vegetable kingdom naturally displays a magnificence which botanists are sorry they have not an opportunity of surveying. On this, as on many other points, Mr. Bruce has deceived our hopes. He gives little information that is really new. The *cusso* tree, for example, which he has named *Banksia Abyssinica*, had been previously described by Godigny.† Messrs. Blumenbach and Gmelin had been long acquainted with the *girgir*, a gramineous plant, which the English traveller considered as a discovery of his own. The trees of Abyssinia hitherto described, though probably not the principal ones of the country, are the sycamore-fig, the *Erythrina corallodendron*, the tamarind, the date, the coffee tree, a large tree used for building boats which Bruce calls the *rak*, and two species of gum-bearing *mimosas*. The *Euphorbium arborescens* is found on some of the arid mountains. A shrub called in the language of the country *wooginoos*, the *Brucea antidysenterica* of Bruce and Gmelin, is justly praised by the English traveller for its medical powers.

Alimentary plants.

The chief alimentary plants are millet, barley, wheat, maize, and teff, besides which there are many others. All travellers concur in praising the fine wheaten bread of Abyssinia; but it is only eaten by people of rank.

The *teff* or *tafo* is a grain smaller than mustard seed, well tasted, and not liable to the depredations of worms.‡

* Alvarez, c. 39. c. 133. Ludolf, Hist. I. 7. Thevenot, II. 69. p. 760.

† Bruns, Afrika, ii. 115.

‡ Gmelin's Appendix to Bruce's Travels, p. 59 of Rinteln's German translation.

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Blumenbach thinks that it is the same with the *Poa Abyssinica*. The gardens of Abyssinia contain many species of fruit trees, and of leguminous and oily plants which are unknown to us.* There are generally two harvests, one during the rainy season, in the months of July, August, and September; the other in spring. At Adowa and in the neighbourhood, there are three crops. Here, as in Egypt, the grain is thrashed by the feet of cattle. Some vines are cultivated, and wine is made, though in very small quantity; for this liquor is not much relished by the inhabitants, who prefer a sort of hydromel mixed with opium. The natives cultivate great quantities of a herbaceous alimentary plant resembling the banana, which serves them for bread, and which Lobo calls *ensete*.† The *Cyperus papyrus* is found in the marshes of Abyssinia as well as in Egypt. Mr. Bruce asserts, that the tree which produces the balm of Judea, and myrrh, is indigenous in Abyssinia, or more properly speaking, on the coast of Adel, from the Straits of Bab-el-mandeb to Cape Guardafooi. He expresses his apprehensions that the odoriferous forests of that country, which were known even to Herodotus,‡ were cut down so fast that they were in danger of soon disappearing. The whole of Abyssinia is scented with the perfumes exhaled from the roses, jessamines, lilies, and primroses with which the fields are covered.

Aromatic trees.

Animals.

The animal kingdom displays equal variety and abundance. The cattle are numerous and of large size, with horns of enormous length. There are wild buffaloes, which sometimes attack travellers. The ass and the mule supply in this country the place of the camel. The horses, which are small but extremely lively, as in all mountainous countries, are only used for the purposes of war. The two-horned rhinoceros is seen wandering in numerous flocks. This animal differs essentially from the one-horned rhino-

Two-horned rhinoceros.

* Petit-la-Croix, c. 6. Alvarez. c. 19. c. 44. c. 48.

† Lobo, Voyage Historique, I. p. 143.

‡ Philosophical Transactions, LXV. 409.

ceros of Asia. Lobo and Bruce both think, in opposition to the general opinion of naturalists, that the one-horned rhinoceros is also found in Abyssinia. But Lobo says that he has found in the accounts given by some of his own countrymen, another animal quite different from the rhinoceros. This, he supposes to be the famous unicorn, which resembles the horse, and is furnished with a mane.* Very probably these Portuguese had seen the same animal which has lately been seen, and authentically described, by Mr. Campbell, in exploring the south of Africa, and of which we shall give an account in a subsequent Book.

It is unnecessary to name the lions, panthers, and various other animals of the cat kind, of which Africa is the native country. The giraffe extends to Abyssinia. Marco Polo and Bakooi, an Arabian author, long ago spoke of it in such a way as to leave no doubt of its existence. Browne says that it is found in Darfoor. So numerous, so ferocious, and so bold are the hyænas in Abyssinia, that they sometimes prowl in the streets of the towns during the night. There are also wild boars, gazelles or antelopes, and monkies: among the last is a small green kind which commits serious ravages among the corn. Lobo and Petit-La-Croix† describe the zebra so minutely as to show that this animal is found in Abyssinia. The *Ashkoko*, described by Mr. Bruce, is the *Cavia capenis* according to Blumenbach, and the booted lynx according to Gmelin.‡ There is also a great number of serpents of remarkable species, and enormous in size. The lakes and rivers swarm with hippopotami and crocodiles. The species of birds are no less numerous. One of these is the great gilded eagle. Alvarez and Lobo mention many singular birds resembling the birds of paradise, the ostrich, and other species peculiar to the torrid zone; but aquatic birds are rare.

The Giraffe.

The Zebra.

* Lobo, Short Relat. p. 23.

† Idem Voy. Hist. I. 291—292. Bruns, II. 91.

‡ See Bruce's Travels, Appendix.

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Insects.

Travellers speak of many species of wild bees, which build their combs under ground, and produce excellent honey.* The most remarkable insect is a fly, the sting of which is dreaded even by the lion, and which forces whole tribes to change their residence, a circumstance which Agatharchides had anticipated Bruce in remarking.† The locusts are still more destructive. Their numberless swarms devastate whole provinces, and involve the inhabitants in the miseries of famine.‡

Uncertainty of the number of provinces.

This general description of so extensive a country, must be subject to many local gradations and modifications, depending on the different positions of its component parts. But our topographical information respecting Abyssinia is so limited and obscure, that we cannot even give a complete enumeration of the provinces. Ludolf speaks of nine kingdoms and five provinces. Thevenot, from the information of an Ethiopian ambassador, says there are seven kingdoms and twenty-four provinces. Bruce mentions nineteen provinces, and, lastly, Petit-la-Croix enumerates thirty-five kingdoms and ten provinces, which have belonged to the Abyssinian monarch, of which he retains only six kingdoms and a half, with the ten provinces.§

Kingdom of Tigré.

Reserving the maritime parts of Abyssinia for another place, we must begin our tour with the kingdom of Tigré, which forms the north-eastern extremity of Abyssinia. This large and very populous province contains the city

City of Axum.

of Axum, which is 120 miles from the Red Sea.‖ It is the ancient residence of the Abyssinian monarchs, who still go thither for the ceremony of coronation. The learned are not agreed respecting the antiquity of this city, which was not known to Herodotus or Strabo. The first author who mentions it is Arrian, in his Periplus of the Erythrean Sea. In the second century, when he wrote, it was a place of

* Ludolf, Hist. I. 13. Lobo, I. p. 89.

† Agath. in Geogr. Min. Hudson, I. 43.

‡ Alvarez, c. 82, 83. Lobo. Ludolf.

§ Petit-la-Croix, ch. 21.

‖ D'Anville, Mem. sur l'Egypte, p. 265.

great trade in ivory.* Its flourishing condition in the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, is attested by the descriptions left us by Procopius, Stephanus Byzantinus, Cosmas, and Nonnossus.† The Portuguese travellers found in it magnificent ruins, the remains of temples and palaces, obelisks without hieroglyphics, one of which was sixty-four feet in height, consisting of a single block of granite, terminated by a crescent with mutilated figures of lions, bears, and dogs, and Greek and Latin characters.‡ According to Mr. Salt, the obelisk, which is still standing, is eighty feet high. There were fifty-four others which had been thrown down by the misguided zeal of a Christian princess. The seat on which the kings used to sit when the crown was put on their head, in front of the great church, has an Ethiopic inscription. Another Greek inscription on a monument, the original purpose of which is unknown, attests the victories of King Aeizanes. The existence of that inscription establishes the authenticity of the one seen by Cosmas at Adulis. But the one which Bruce pretended to have discovered at Axum appears to have been a mere fabrication. The modern town of Axum reckons 600 houses, but no remarkable buildings. It contains manufactories of good parchment, and of coarse cotton stuffs. This last branch of industry is also carried on to a great extent at Adorva, a town of 300 houses, which has, since 1769, become the capital of the province. The neighbourhood of Adorva, though containing steep mountains, yields three crops in the year.—In the northern part of this province, on the road from Masuah to Axum, is Dixan, a considerable town, with flat-roofed houses, on the tops of which two earthen pots are stuck up instead of chimneys. The

Inscription.

Dixan.

* Hudson, Geogr. Minor. t. I. l. 3.

† Quoted by Ludolf, Hist. Æthiop. II. ch. 11. Comment. p. 60 and 251.

‡ Lobo, Voyage, 255. Alvarez, cap. 38. Hist. de ce qui s'est passe, &c. p. 137.

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inhabitants are said to be idle and dirty. The women perform the drudgeries of agriculture, to which they go out carrying their children on their backs. The people are very ignorant, and the few who can read are considered as fully qualified for the priesthood. It is an emporium for the sale of white cloths, tobacco, pepper, looking-glasses, and spirits. Many children are also sold and sent to the Arabians of Mecca.—At Abuhasubba, between Dixan and Axum, there is a large church cut entirely out of the solid rock. One of its rooms is fifty feet by thirty: another has a dome forty feet high. The walls are carved, adorned with crosses, Ethiopic inscriptions, and paintings, representing Christ, the apostles, and St. George. On the eastern frontier of Tigré is the town of Antale, which, during the visit of Mr. Salt, was the seat of government, being the residence of the viceroy, Ras Wellata Selasse. It consists of about 1000 hovels of mud and straw, together with the palace.—In this province is the monastery of Fremona, which has always been the chief establishment of the Jesuits. It is about a mile in circumference, surrounded by walls, flanked with towers, and pierced for musketry. It appeared to Mr. Bruce to have more the air of a castle than of a convent, and to be the most defensible place that he saw in Abyssinia. The province of Tigré in general is extremely fertile, but the inhabitants are a ferocious, blood-thirsty, corrupt, and perfidious race.*

Temple of Abuhasubba.

Monastery of Fremona.

The provinces adjoining Tigré on the west are called Wogara, Sireh, and Samen. Wogara is one of the granaries of Abyssinia. The humid plains of the Sireh produce numerous palms, and a variety of fruit trees. The banks of the Tacazzé, on its borders, are very beautiful, from the number of fine trees with which they are decorated. In Samen we find several mountain chains, the most celebrated of which are Lamalmon and Amba-Gideon. The last is properly a table land, which has so

Provinces of Wogara, Sireh, &c.

* Petit-la-Croix, ch. 10.

steep a descent all round as to be rendered almost inaccessible, but sufficient, both in size and fertility, to support a whole army. It was the fortress of the Falasja or Abyssinian Jews, who were once masters of the province of Samen.

Kingdom of Dembea.

To the south-west of Tigré, in the fertile plains surrounding lake Tzana, lies the province or kingdom of Dembea, where we find Gondar, the modern capital of Abyssinia.

City of Gondar.

This city, according to the report of a native, almost equals Grand Cairo in extent and population.* But Bruce reduces the number of its inhabitants to 10,000 families.† The houses are built of red stone, and roofed with thatch. It contains a hundred Christian churches. One quarter of the city is peopled with Moors. The king's palace resembles a Gothic fort. The trade, which is extensive, is carried on in a vast open space, where the goods are daily exposed on mats. The current media of exchange are gold and salt; sometimes, also, the woollen cloths manufactured at Adowa. The province of Dembea contains also the town of Emfras, consisting of 300 houses, and agreeably situated. This province is remarkably fertile in grain.

Kingdom of Gojam.

To the south of Dembea the Nile winds round the kingdom of Gojam, forming thus a sort of peninsula. This part of the river has a most magnificent waterfall, the whole river falling down from a height of forty feet, with tremendous force and noise, into a basin where it wheels round in numerous eddies. Abounding in all sorts of productions, this province derives its chief riches from its herds of cattle.

Begamder.

To the east of Gojam are found the provinces of Amhara and Begamder; the name of the latter of which signifies "the Sheep Country." It also contains horses,

* Abraham, an Abyssinian, quoted by Sir W. Jones, in his Asiatic Researches.

† Bruce's Travels.

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and its inhabitants are very warlike. The mountainous country called Lasta, inhabited by a tribe which is generally independent, contains some iron mines. Amhara, to the south of Begamder, has always passed for one of the principal provinces of Abyssinia, and contains a numerous and brave nobility.* Here is the famous state-prison of Geshen, or Amba-Geshen, which is now succeeded by Wechneh in the province of Begamder. It seems to consist of steep mountains, which contain either a natural cavern or an artificial ditch, into which the prisoners descend by means of a rope. Here the Abyssinian monarch causes to be kept under his own eye all those princes of his family from whom he thinks he has any thing to apprehend. It is often to this tomb of living beings that the grandees of the kingdom come to select the prince whom, from a regard for his birth, or from pure affection, they call to the throne. These barbarous usages, however, vary according to the character of the monarch, and according to the anarchical or comparatively peaceful state of the country.†

Amhara.

State prison.

When we have added to these provinces that of Xoa, or Shoa, formed by a large valley very difficult of access,‡ and that of Damota, rich in gold, in crystal, and in cattle with monstrous horns;§ we have gone over the Abyssinian empire properly so called. Lobo, who resided for a time in Damota, extols it as the most delightful country he had ever beheld. The air is temperate and healthy, the mountains beautifully shaded with trees, without having the appearance of wild and irregular forests. Vegetation here is perpetually active: the operations of sowing and reaping are common to all seasons of the year, and the whole scene has the aspect of a pleasure-garden. As for Shoa, its ruling prince is stated by Bruce to be rather an ally to the king of Gondar than a vassal.

Xoa.

Damota.

* Thevenot, p. 764.
† Bruns, Afrika, II.
‡ Salt's Travels.
§ Lacroze, quoted by Bruns, Afrika, II. p. 217.

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The more remote provinces are mostly under the yoke of the ferocious Galla, and other savage tribes hostile to the Abyssinians. To the east are the countries of Angot and Bali: to the south we are told of those of Fatgar, of Yvat, of Cambat, and most especially the kingdom of Enarea, which, from Bruce's account, seems to be a table land, watered by several rivers which have no visible outlet, and deriving a temperate climate from its elevation. The inhabitants, who in the mountains have pretty clear complexions, trade with the people of Melinda on the Indian ocean, and with those of Angola on the Ethiopic. The hilly district of Caffa must be conterminous with Enarea on the south. All these heights are covered with coffee trees. But this report, from a traveller in other respects not very scrupulous, requires further confirmation.*

Dismembered provinces.

In the topographical sketch of Abyssinia now given, we observe the mixed nature of the population of this country. We shall first take a glance of the Abyssins, or, as they call themselves the Agazians. In their handsome forms, their long hair, and their features, they approach to the European; but they are distinguished from all known races, by a complexion altogether peculiar, which Mr. Bruce compares sometimes to that of pale ink,† sometimes to an olive brown, and which, according to the French Institute of Egypt, seems to partake of a bronze colour. The portraits of the Abyssinians, given by Ludolf and Bruce, betray, however, some traits of similarity to the negroes. When we attend to their language, we find that the Gheez, which is spoken in the kingdom of Tigré, and in which the books of the Abyssinians are written, is regarded by all the learned as a dialect derived from the Arabic. The Amharic language, used at the Abyssinian court since the 14th century, and spoken in most of the provinces, has also many Arabic roots, but carries in its syntax eviden-

Inhabitants.

The Abyssins, or Agazians.

Languages.

* Bruns, Afrika, II. 217, 218.

† Adelung, Mithridates, I. 404.

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ces of a peculiar origin. The Gheez language, harder than the Arabic, contains five consonants which, to the organs of a European, are unutterable. The Amharic is much softer, but has not that variety of grammatical forms which characterizes the Asiatic languages.* It would appear, therefore, that Abyssinia, first peopled by an indigenous and primitive race, has received, more especially in its northern and maritime parts, a colony of Arabs, and probably of the tribe of Cush, whose name is, in the prophetic books of Scripture, applied both to a part of Arabia and to Ethiopia.† This Arabian origin of a part of the Abyssinians explains the reasons why several of the Byzantine authors have placed the country of the *Abaseni* in Arabia Felix.

Historical epochs.

The intimate relations which Abyssinia has maintained with the nations of Asia confirm the opinion of their descent from the Kushite Arabs. The indigenous history of the Abyssinians, so far at least as it is known to us, goes no farther back than the famous Queen of Sheba, who travelled to Judea to admire the magnificence of Solomon. The son whom she bore to the king of the Jews had the two names of David and Menihelec. His descendants continued to reign till the year 960 of the Christian era. —Under the two brothers, Abraha and Azbaha, in the year 330, the Christian religion was introduced into Abyssinia. In 522, king Caleb, called also Elesbaan, in alliance with the emperor Justinian, fought several campaigns in Arabia against the Jews and the Koreishites. The Zogaïc dynasty reigned for 340 years. The most celebrated king of that family, Lalibala, caused several dwellings to be cut in the rocks, and among others, ten churches, of which a traveller of the 16th century has given representations in plates. In 1368, the grandees of Shoa reinstated a

* Ludolf, Gramm. Amharica.

† Michaelis, Spicileg. Geogr. Hebr. Exteræ, t. I. p. 143—157. Eichhorn, Programma de Kuschœis. Arnstadt, 1774. Compare Isaiah, cap. 18 & 20. Ezekiel, cap. 29. v. 10. cap. 30. v. 3. v. 9. Nehemiah, cap. 3. v. 8. Joseph. Antiq. Judaic. I. 6. § 2. &c. &c.

branch of the old Solomonic dynasty on a throne, of which, twenty years ago, it continued in possession. Among the princes of this dynasty, Amda Zion, at the beginning of the 14th century, was a warlike and powerful prince. Zara Jacob sent to the council of Florence ambassadors, who declared for the eastern church.—Under the unfortunate David III. began the connections of Abyssinia with Portugal. His son Claudius, or Azenaf Segued, a prince of the highest endowments, had to contend at the same time with the ferocious Mahometans who devastated his empire, and the intrigues of the missionaries who laboured to subject him to the authority of the Pope. He kept up the alliance with the Portuguese, who, in 1542, sent him an auxiliary body of 450 men, under the command of Christopher de Gama. That hero died gloriously fighting against a numerous army of Moors, and the king himself lost his life in a subsequent battle. Under the reigns of his successors the intrigues of the Roman Catholics continued unsuccessful; and, when at last, in the year 1620, the learned and able father Paez succeeded in making the king Socinios, or Susneus, declare publicly for the church of Rome, the only result was a train of the bloodiest civil wars. In 1632, king Basilides, or Facilidas, put an end to them, by expelling the catholics and securing the exclusive sway to the Abyssinian church. From that period Abyssinia ceased to be known in Europe. But in 1691, king Yasoos I. sent an embassy to Batavia. This monarch, distinguished for his virtues, repaired to the foot of the famous mount Wechneh, caused all the princes who were immured in that place of confinement to be brought before him, consoled them, passed some weeks in their society, and left them so delighted with his kindness, that they returned with good will to their dreary abode. The vices of the children of Yasoos I. favoured for a moment the enterprizes of a usurper who filled the throne, and declared in favour of the catholic religion. Yasoos II. spent his leisure hours in studying the arts, particularly architecture. He married a princess from one of the Galla

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tribes, and his successor, by his marriage, gave occasion to civil wars, by conferring some of the government appointments on the Gallas.—At the time of Mr. Bruce's visit, the reigning king, called Tecla Haimanut, succeeded in quieting these troubles; but, dethroned by a rebel prince, he left his country a prey to anarchy. The *ras*, or governor of Tigré, the powerful Wellata Selasse, whom Mr. Salt visited, supports a nominal king who lives at Axum, while Guxo, a Galla chief, has set up another nominal sovereign.*

Present state.

Religion.

Separated from Europe by distrust as well as by natural obstacles, and insulated in the midst of Mahometan and pagan nations, the Abyssinians, though possessing vigour and talent, languish in a condition not unlike that of Europe in the 12th century. Their Christianity, mixed with Jewish practices, admits circumcision in both sexes as a harmless practice. They keep both the Jewish sabbath and the first day of the week. During the great discussions which were held on abstract doctrines respecting the nature of Jesus Christ, the church of Abyssinia was by its geographical position drawn over to the sect of the Monophysites, of which it forms a leading branch along with the Copts of Egypt.† Yet, in their numerous festivals, in the worship of saints and angels, and in the adoration almost divine which they pay to the Virgin Mary, they come near to the catholicism of the Spaniards and Italians.‡ They make use of incense and of holy water. The sacraments which they acknowledge are baptism, confession, and the eucharist. They take the last in both kinds, and believe in transubstantiation. Their Bible contains the same books as that of the catholics, besides an additional one called the book of Enoch, of which Mr. Bruce brought home three copies.§ In the metropolitan church

* Salt's Travels.

† Tecla Abyss. quoted by Thomas à Jésus, de Convers. gent. VII. 1. c. 13.

‡ Ludolf, Hist. III. cap. 5. Lobo, II. 90, 91.

§ Silvestre de Sacy, Magasin Encyclopéd. 1800.

of Axum, a holy arch is kept up, which is regarded as the palladium of the empire. The Abuna, who is the head of the clergy, and may be compared to the *exarchs*, is nominated by the Coptic patriarch of Alexandria, and is always a foreigner. The monks of the two orders of Saint Eustathius and Saint Tecla Haimanut, make themselves useful in cultivating the ground.* The marriage of priests is allowed as in the Greek church.

Civil and political state.

If this religion be, as the Abyssinians pretend, one of the most ancient forms of Christianity, it certainly has little influence on the civilization of the people. Every thing almost is conducted in the same manner as in Turkey. The Abyssinian monarch, an absolute despot, sells the provincial governments to other subordinate despots.† Some of these governors have contrived to render their dignity hereditary.‡ The Vizier or prime minister has the title of *Ras*. The nobility consists of descendants of the royal family, the number of which is augmented by the practice of polygamy, which, though condemned by the church, is kept up by the force of custom, and the influence of the climate. Those princes who have pretensions to the succession are usually kept in the royal prison. According to some authors, there is scarcely such a thing as the right of property; yet other accounts mention a sort of magistrate who taxes the produce, and fixes the sum to be paid by the farmer to the proprietor, a procedure which seems to suppose considerable respect for the rights and interests of the people.§ Justice is administered with great promptitude; punishments of the most barbarous kind seem to be frequent. There are tribunals of twelve persons with a presiding judge, which, like the old Gothic tribunals, hold their court in the open air. The king's revenues consist of supplies of grain, fruit, and honey, with some slender payments in gold. Every three years a tenth part of the cattle is appropriated by the govern-

* Petit-la-Croix, ch. 17—20. &c.

† Lobo, I. 323.

‡ Petit-la-Croix, ch. 21.

§ Bruns, Afrika, II. 126.

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ment.* The army, which is paid by grants of land, amounts to 40,000 men, a tenth part of whom are cavalry. Some carry short firelocks, which they never fire without resting them on a post. The greater part are armed with lances and swords. The bravery of the Abyssinians, not being directed by tactics, has usually no other effect than that of exposing them to extensive carnage. When victorious they give full scope to their ferocity, mutilating the dead bodies of their enemies in a shocking manner, and exhibiting publicly the most indecent trophies of their success.†

The army.

This single feature must excite in our readers a disgust sufficient to suppress all avidity for a detailed description of the manners of the Abyssinians; we shall therefore only subjoin such brief sketches as are necessary. They live in round hovels with conical roofs, a form rendered necessary by the violent rains. A light cotton dress, some pieces of Persian carpet, and a few articles of handsome black pottery, form the chief objects of luxury. The children go naked till the age of fifteen.‡ The arts and mechanical professions are in a great measure in the hands of strangers, and especially of the Jews.§ To these last belong all the smiths, masons, and thatchers in the country.

Houses.

The proud indolence of the Abyssinians is shown in their manner of eating. The great lords have servants at table to introduce their newly dressed victuals into their mouths.

It seems certain, after much discussion maintained on the point, that the Abyssinians have no repugnance to raw flesh, accompanied with a gravy of fresh blood, and rather consider it as a delicacy.‖ Bruce has perhaps exaggerated in saying that they cut slices from the live ox for immediate use, the blood of the animal staining the entrance,

Abyssinian feasts.

* Petit-la-Croix, ch. 22.

† Bruce's Travels.

‡ Petit-la-Croix, ch. 11.

§ Ludolf, l. IV. c. 5. Petit-la-Croix, ch. 9. &c.

‖ Bruns, Afrika, II. 137.

and his bellowings mingling with the festive noise of the company. The savage gaiety of these feasts is animated by hydromel in which opium is dissolved. The two sexes indulge publicly in freedoms which to other nations seem licentious, though perhaps not in the gross debaucheries of which they have been accused.

Such being the character of the Christians of Abyssinia, we cannot be surprised at any thing in the manners of the more savage nations that live in this country. The ferocity and the dirtiness of the Gallas surpass every idea that can be formed. They live entirely on raw meat; they smear their faces with the blood of their slain enemies, and hang their entrails round their necks, or interweave them with their hair. The incursions of these nomade and pastoral tribes are sudden and disastrous. Every living thing is put to the sword; they butcher the infant in the mother's womb; and the youths, after being mutilated, are sold by them into slavery. These people are distinguished from the negroes by their low stature, their deep brown complexions, and their long hair. These African Tartars, who first made their appearance in the countries situated to the south-east of Abyssinia, now occupy five or six great provinces of that empire, as stated in the topography. They are divided into many tribes, which, according to some, are arranged into three national communities. Those of the south are little known; those of the west are called Bertuma-Galla: they have kings, or war chiefs, called Loobo; those in the east are called Boren-Galla, and their chiefs Mooty. Their chiefs, who, according to Lobo, only enjoy a temporary authority, give audience in wretched hovels. Their guards and courtiers beginning by beating with bludgeons any stranger who presents himself; then introduce him into the king's presence, and compliment him as an intrepid fellow who would not suffer himself to be dismissed.† The Gallas worship trees, stones, the moon, and some of the stars. They believe in magic, and in a

Savage nations.

Their religion, laws, and customs.

* Bruce's Travels. Ludolf, Histor. Æthiop. I. 15. 16. Valentia's Voyages and Travels, III. p. 26.

† Lobo, l. c. I. p. 26.

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future state. The rights of property, marriage, and the support of aged relations, are made binding by their laws. Warriors are allowed to expose their children. In their distant expeditions across the desert countries, they live on pounded coffee.

The Abyssinians consider the Gallas as originally belonging to the east coast of Africa. Their name seems to figure among the nations which were vanquished or subjugated by Ptolemy Philadelphus, according to the inscription of Adulis. When, along with these circumstances, we take into view the physical features which distinguish them from the negroes, we must at once reject the hypothesis of some geographers who would represent them as a colony of the Galla negroes of the Pepper Coast. They belong more probably to the nomade tribes of southern central Africa.

The Shangallas.

The other pagan and savage races are not quite so formidable. In the north-west parts, and to the east of the river Tacazzé, the Shangalla inhabit the wooded heights which are called Kolla by the Abyssinians. The visages of these negroes bear a resemblance to those of apes. They spend one part of the year under the shadows of trees, and the rest in caverns, which have been dug in the soft sandstone rocks. Some of these tribes live on elephants and rhinoceroses, others on lions and boars; one of them subsists on locusts. They go quite naked, and are armed with poisoned javelins. The Abyssinians hunt them like wild beasts. These tribes, the description of which forms one of the most valuable parts of Mr. Bruce's account,* were long ago designated by ancient authors under the name of locust-eaters, ostrich-eaters, and elephant-eaters.† The nature of the soil, alternately covered with water, and baked and cracked into chinks by the violent heats, excludes every sort of culture.

The Agows.

There are two nations called Agows. The one lives in the province of Lasta, round the sources of the Tacazzé,

* Blumenbach in his translation of Bruce, V. 260.

† Agatharch. in Geogr. Min. Hudson, I. 37. Diod. Sic. III. &c.

the other possesses the neighbourhood of the sources of the Nile of Abyssinia. Possessing fertile but inaccessible countries, courageous, and provided with good cavalry, they maintain their independence both against the Gallas and Abyssinians. The Agows of the Nile furnish Gondar with beef, butter, and honey. Although they retain some traces of the progress which the Christian religion formerly made among them, their principal worship is addressed to the spirit whom they consider as presiding over the sources of the Nile. Every year they sacrifice a cow to that spirit, and some neighbouring tribes, among whom are the Gafates, join in the sacrifice.

The Gafates. The Gafates are a numerous people, who speak a distinct language and live in Damot. Their country produces very fine cotton.

The Gurags. The Gurags, a set of expert and intrepid robbers, live in the hollows of rocks to the south-east of Abyssinia. Bermudas places them in the kingdom of Oggy, contained in the list of provinces given by Petit-la-Croix.* "This country," says that author, "produces musk, amber, sandal-wood, and ebony, and is visited by white merchants."

The Falasjas, or Abyssinian Jews. Of all the inhabitants of Abyssinia, the Jews, called Falasja, or "the exiled," present the most extraordinary historical curiosity. That nation seems to have formed for ages a state more or less independent in the province of Samen, under a dynasty, the kings of which always bore the name of Gideon, and the queens that of Judith.† That family being now extinct, the Falasja submit to the king of Abyssinia.‡ They exercise the vocations of weavers, smiths, and carpenters. At Gondar they are considered as sorcerers, who during the night assume the form of hyænas. According to Ludolf they had synagogues and Hebrew Bibles, and spoke a corrupt dialect of Hebrew.§

* Bruns, Afrika, II. 230.

† Bruce's Travels.

‡ Salt's Travels.

§ Ludolf, Hist. Æthiop. l. I. cap. 14.

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Bruce asserts that they have the sacred books only in the Gheez language; that they have lost all knowledge of the Hebrew, speak a jargon peculiar to themselves, and know nothing of the Talmud, the Targorun, or the Cabbala. The greater part of the Falasjas live on the Bahr-el-Abiad among the Shillooks. This is the very country that was occupied by the Egyptian exiles, the Asmach and Sebridæ. Perhaps a company of Egyptian Jews followed the steps of these emigrants, and it is not unlikely that they have been mixed together.

TROGLODYTICA, OR THE COAST OF HABESH.

Travellers, both ancient and modern, agree in comprehending all the African coasts, from Egypt to the strait of Bab-el-Mandeb, under the general name of Troglodytica, the coast of Abex, or Habesh, or New Arabia. There is nothing to prevent us from adopting that interesting division, in relation to history and to physical geography. We have found that neither Nubia nor Abyssinia have any fixed limits: and an Arabian geographer of great weight, Abulfeda, makes a formal distinction between Nubia and the maritime parts.*

Minerals.

The ancients, whom we must often take for our guides, represent the chain of mountains which skirts the Arabian Gulf as very rich in metals and precious stones. Agatharchides† and Diodorus‡ make mention of mines of gold which were worked. These were contained in a white rock, probably granite. Pliny makes these riches common to all the mountainous region between the Nile and the Gulf.§ The Arabian geographers have confirmed these accounts as well as those which relate to a quarry of emeralds.

Want of water.

But the excessive heat and the scarcity of water render the low part of the coast almost uninhabitable. Cisterns must be every where used, as there are no springs.‖ In the dry season the elephants dig holes with their trunks

* Abulfeda, Afrika, edit. Eichhorn, tab. XXVII.

† Agatharch. de Mar. Rub. Geogr. Min. Hudson.

‡ Diod. Sic. § Plin. VI. 30. ‖ Idem.

and their teeth to find water. The Etesian, or north-east winds bring the periodical rains.* The small lakes or marshes which abound on the coast are then filled with rain water. The palms, laurels, olive trees, styraxes, and other aromatic trees, cover the islands and low coasts. In the woods are found the elephant, the giraffe, the ant-eater, and numerous sorts of monkeys. The sea, which is not very deep, is green like a meadow, from the great quantity of algæ and other marine plants which it maintains. It likewise contains much coral.

Vegetables. Animals.

The nature of the soil and climate has, in all ages, kept the inhabitants in a uniform state of savage wretchedness. Divided into tribes, and subject to hereditary chiefs, they lived formerly, and still live, on the produce of their flocks of goats, and by fishing. The hollows of the rocks were and still are their ordinary dwelling. From these caverns, called in Greek *trogla*, is derived the general name under which they are designated by the ancients. That kind of lodging was anciently used in many other countries of the world. We find Troglodytes at the bottom of Caucasus and of Mount Atlas, in Mœsia, in Italy, and in Sicily. This last mentioned island contains an example of a whole city, formed by excavation in the interior of a mountain.† But of all the races that have dwelt in caverns, those of the Arabian Gulf have longest preserved the habits and the name of Troglodytes.

Modes of living. The Troglodytes.

According to the ancients, these people are of Arabian origin. Bruce considers them under the general and comprehensive name of Agazi or Gheez, which means shepherds. They speak the Gheez language, which is a dialect of the Arabic. The uncouth and singular sounds of this language made the ancients say that the Troglodytes hissed and howled instead of speaking. They were said to practise circumcision on both sexes. They employed a barbarous custom, which is used at this day among the Kora-Hotten-

Language, manners, and customs.

* Strabo. † Travels in Sicily by Prince Biscari, in Italian.

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tots, that of a partial castration.* In ancient times they observed none of the laws of marriage; the wives of the chiefs of tribes were the only women who could be said to have husbands.† They painted their whole bodies with white lead, and hung round their necks shells, which they believed to have the power of protecting them from sorcery. Some of these tribes killed none of their domestic animals, but lived on their milk, as the Hazorta still do; others ate serpents and locusts, a food still relished by various tribes of the Shangallas; finally, there were among them some who devoured the flesh and bones of animals mashed together, and cooked in a bag formed of the skin. They manufactured a vinous liquor from certain wild fruits. The most wretched among them repaired in flocks, like cattle, to the marshes or lakes, to allay their thirst. This picture of the ancient Troglodytes is in a great measure applicable to the present inhabitants of these coasts.

Mr. Belzoni, who, in his excursion to the Red Sea, came near the countries now under consideration, met with a fisherman, who was probably a fair specimen of that department of the population.‡ He lived in a tent only five feet wide, with his wife, daughter, and son-in-law. He had no boat, but went to sea on the trunk of a doomt tree,§ ten or twelve feet long, with a horizontal piece of wood at each end, to prevent it from turning round; a small hole for a mast; and a shawl for a sail, managed by means of a cord. On this apparatus two fishermen mount as on horseback, carrying a long spear, which they dart at the fish when they see them. The weather requires to be very favourable when they go to sea, this being impracticable during the east, and dangerous in west, winds.

Fishermen.

* "Ils se privaient d'un testicule, coutume barbare qui se retrouve aujourd'hui chez les Kora-Hottentots."

† "Anciennement les femmes étaient en commun, à l'exception de celles des chefs de tribus."

‡ Narrative, vol. II. p. 68.

§ The *Cucifera Thebaica* of Delille. a palm.

Topography. Emerald mines.

We shall begin the topography of the coast with the promontory Ral-el-enf, or the *Mons Smaragdus* of the ancients. Mr. Bruce places opposite to this Cape an "Isle of Emeralds," where he found fine green crystals of fluor spar. But the famous emerald mine, which was worked by the Egyptians, was on the continent. The Arabian geographers place it in a more southerly latitude than Assouan or Syené. They say that the mountain is shaped like a bridge, and that the emeralds are found sometimes in sand, sometimes in a blackish gangue.* Some moderns have given vague confirmations of the existence of this mine.† We believe it to be the same which was visited by Belzoni. Pliny extols its precious stones for their hardness,‡ and they are in great request in the east, under the name of "emeralds of the Saide."§

Isles of Topazes.

Zemorget Island, which is farther from the continent than the Isle of Emeralds, passes for the Topaz Island of the ancients.‖ It is a barren rock, and was inhabited only by serpents, when chance led to the discovery of a quarry of beautiful stones, which the ancients called topazes, and the working of them was undertaken by the kings of Egypt.

The country of Beja, or Bodsha.

The coast makes a great concave sweep, called, by ancient and modern navigators, Foul Bay. At the bottom of this gulf is the port of the Abyssinians. The Arabian geographers give the coast nearest this port, the name of Baza, Beja, or Bodsha. According to them it is a kingdom separated from Nubia by a chain of mountains, rich in gold, silver, and emeralds.¶ We have very discordant

* Edrisi, Bakooi, Ibn-al-Ooardi, in Edrisi's Africa, ed. Hartmann, p. 79.

† Maillet, Descript. de l'Egypte, p. 307. Niebuhr, Voyage, I. 210. Lucas, &c. &c.

‡ Plin. XXXVII. 16.

§ Otter, Voyage, &c. I. 208. Wansleben, in Paulus, Collect. des Voyages, &c. I. 33.

‖ D'Anville, Descr. du Golfe Arab. p. 233. Gosselin, Recherches sur la Géographie des Anciens, II. 196.

¶ Abulfeda, loc. cit. Edrisi, Africa, p. 78—80.

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accounts, both of the orthography of the name and the boundaries of the country. The name of Baza is found in that of the promontory called *Bazium* by the ancients, and now Raz-el-Comol. The inhabitants of this country, who are called Bugiha by Leo Africanus, *Bogaïtes* in the inscription at Axum, and Bedjah by the generality of the Arabians, lead a nomade and savage life. They derive abundant aliment from the milk and flesh of their camels, cattle, and sheep; every father exercises a patriarchal rule in his family, and they have no other government. Full of loyalty to one another, and hospitable to strangers, they continually rob the neighbouring agriculturists, and the trading caravans. Their cattle have horns of enormous size, and their sheep are spotted. The men are all subjected to the barbarous and indecent mutilation already mentioned of the Gallas and the Kora-Hottentots. There are some tribes among them in which the front teeth are extracted; and there is a society of women who manufacture arms, and lead the lives of Amazons.* The custom of hanging up a garment on the end of a pike as a signal of peace, and for commanding silence, is common to them with the Hazorta, a tribe on the coast of Abyssinia.†— Bruce asserts that they speak a dialect of the Gheez, or Abyssinian language. But the Arabian historian of Nubia makes them belong to the race of Berbers, or Barabras.' A learned orientalist, M. Quatremère, has endeavoured to demonstrate the identity of the Bugihas or Bejahs, with the *Blemmyes* of the ancients, or the Balnemoois of the Coptic writers. The descriptions of the ancients appear to us to apply more naturally to the Ababdehs. The other hypothesis is formally contradicted by a passage of Strabo. "The Megabari," says that geographer,

* Abdallah, Histoire de la Nubie, d'après Makrisi, trad. par. M. E. Quatremère. Mém. Hist. Géogr. sur l'Egypte, II. p. 135.

† Compare Quatremère, ibid. p. 139, and Salt's Travels.

"and the Blemmyes, live beyond Meroë, on the banks of the Nile nearest the Red Sea. They are neighbours to the Egyptians, and subject to the Ethiopians, but on the sea shore live the Troglodytes."* From this passage we must consider the Megabaris as chiefly represented by the Makorrah of the historian Abdallah, the Blemmyes by the Ababdehs, and the Troglodytes by the Bejahs.

Port of Aidab.

The port of Aidab, called Gidid by the Portuguese long served as a point of communication between Africa and Arabia. It was a great place of embarkation for Mahometan pilgrims bound to Mecca. The Samoom wind renders this place scarcely habitable.

Town and district of Suakem.

Suakem, called Szawaken,† by M. Seetzen, in the latitude of Dongola in Nubia, is now the most frequented port. The town is surrounded with some redoubts, and is mostly built on an island. It possesses mosques and even schools, and has a garrison appointed by the Sheriff of Mecca. The adjoining coast has no river, and is badly supplied with fresh water; it contains calcareous rock, potters clay, and red ochre, but no metals. Here some dourra, tobacco, water-melons, and sugar-cane, are cultivated. Among its trees we find the sycamore, which, as well as the *Persea*,‡ the ancients mention as growing in Troglodytica. The forests consist of ebony trees, gummy acacias, and many varieties of palms. There is a large tree which produces a fruit resembling grapes. Here are found the giraffe and numerous herds of elephants. The sea yields pearls and black coral. Besides all these productions, the city exports slaves and gold rings brought from Soodan.§ The inhabitants of Suakem, and those of Hallinga-Taka, the adjoining tribe of the Bishareens, and that of Hadindoa, speak a peculiar language.‖

* Geographia, lib. XVII. in principio.

† *Sz* in the Polish language, is pronounced like our *sh*.

‡ Strabo, loc. cit.

§ Seetzen, information received from a native. Zach's correspondence, July, 1809.

‖ Mithridate, t. III. p. 120, from a manuscript note of M. Seetzen.

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The promontory of Ras-Ageeg, or Ahehas, seems to be the termination of the Bejah, or Bodja, or Baza country. After this promontory comes a desert coast lined with islets and rocks. It was here that the Ptolemies procured the elephants which they required for their armies. Here Lord Valentia found a large harbour, to which he gave the name of Port Mornington. The first considerable island met with is called Dahalac, the largest indeed belonging to the Arabian Gulf, being more than sixty miles in circumference. It is level on the side towards the continent, but rises eastward, and has a rocky precipitous coast towards the sea.* It contains goats with long silky hair, and furnishes a sort of gum-lac, the produce of a particular shrub.† The pearls formerly got here had a yellowish water, and were of little value.‡ To this island vessels repair for fresh water,§ which, however, according to Mr. Bruce's account, is very bad, being kept in 370 dirty cisterns.

Island of Dahalac.

In the gulf formed between this island and the coast is found Massua, or Matzua, an arid rock, with a bad fortress and a very good harbour. It is here that travellers land who go to Abyssinia by sea. At the bottom of the gulf the town of Arkiko commands an anchorage, which is exposed to the north-east winds. It contains 400 houses, some of which are built of clay, and others of plaited grass.‖

Massua.

This low, sandy, and burning coast, called Samhar, is the scene of the wanderings of different nomade tribes, as the Shihos, who are very black in complexion, and the Hazortas, who are small and copper-coloured. These people, like the ancient Troglodytes, inhabit holes in the rocks, or hovels made of rushes and sea-weed. Leading a pas-

Country of Samhar.

* Alvarez, c. 19. c. 20. D'Anville, Descript. du golfe Arab. p. 206.

† Vincent Leblanc, p. I. ch. 9. Coronelli, Isol. p. 110.

‡ Lobo, I. 51.

§ Poncet, German transl. 171.

‖ Bruce's Travels, lib. V. ch. 12.

toral life, they change their dwelling as soon as the rains give rise to a little verdure on the burning soil; for, when the rainy season ends in the plains, it begins among the mountains.

The Turks, who have been masters of this coast since the sixteenth century, gave the government of it to an Arab Sheik of the Bellowe tribe, who has the title of Naib. But, according to recent accounts, it appears that the governor of Abyssinia and of Tigré, has resumed his ancient influence over this part of the Abyssinian empire.* The last traveller, Mr. Salt, found the Naib independent of the Turks, and acknowledging the power of the Ras of Tigré.

Territory of Bahar-Nagash.

The government of the coast, called in ancient accounts the territory of the Bahar-Nagash, that is, "the King of the Sea," formerly extended from Suakem to the south of the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb. Dobarva, or Barva, its ancient capital, was, in Bruce's time, in the hands of the Naib of Massua. This town, situated on the Mareb, is considered as the key of Abyssinia towards the sea. During the existence of the Portuguese influence it was a place of great trade,† but it was not visited by Mr. Salt.

Dankali.

To the south of Samhar, the coast takes the name of Dankali, or, as Niebuhr calls it, Denakil,‡ a sandy country from which salt is obtained, and the chief port of which is Bayloor. The inhabitants are called Taltals, and, though Mahometans, are in alliance with Abyssinia.

The country round the strait of Bab-el-Mandeb is, in the best modern maps, called Adeil; but we know not whether it belongs to Abyssinia, or, as the name seems to indicate, to the kingdom of Adel. Bruce mentions some magnificent ruins at Assab, the chief port of this province, but gives a very obscure account of the place and country.

* Bruns, Afrika, II. 195. Lett. di S. Ignacio di Loyola, &c. Rome, 1790, p. 21.

† Alvarez, c. 18. 20. 23. 128.

‡ Niebuhr, Descript. de l'Arabie, tab. XX.

# BOOK LXIV.

## THE REGION OF MOUNT ATLAS, BARBARY, AND ZAHARA.

### PART I.

*General features of these Countries.*

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FROM the Egyptian Delta and the pyramids, we have ascended the Nile as far as we enjoyed the assistance of history and of the journals of European travellers. Before attempting to penetrate the mysterious centre of northern Africa, we shall complete our view of its more accessible parts, turning our attention in the first place to mount Atlas, and the pillars of Hercules. A straight line passing from the cataracts of the Nile to Cape Blanco, or the mouth of the Senegal, will form the southern boundary of the region now to be described. Here physical geography presents us with two leading and characteristic phenomena, the greatest desert in the known world, and one of the most extensive mountain chains. These two features belong to two distinct regions. We shall first trace that of Mount Atlas, to which the common practice of Arabian and European geographers has given the name of Barbary, or more properly Berbery, from the Arabic name of the most ancient indigenous race of its inhabitants.

Region of the Atlas.

Mount Atlas described.

Mount Atlas has a certain degree of poetical celebrity, being represented by Homer and Herodotus as one of the pillars of heaven. According to Virgil, "Atlas is a hero me-

tamorphosed into a rock. His robust limbs are converted into pillars; he bears on his shoulders the entire heavens, with all their orbs, without feeling oppression from their weight. His head, crowned with a forest of pines, is continually girt with clouds, or battered by winds and storms. A mantle of snow covers his shoulders, and rapid torrents flow down his venerable beard." But this famous mountain is at present obscurely known to Europeans, and we wait for some fortunate traveller to give us a satisfactory and complete description of it. M. Desfontaines, who with the eyes of a learned botanist surveyed a great part of this system of mountains, considers it as divided into two leading chains. The southern one, adjoining the desert, is called the Great Atlas, the other lying towards the Mediterranean is called the little chain. Both run east and west, and are connected together by several intermediate mountains running north and south, and containing between them both valleys and table lands. This description, though general and rather vague, is the clearest that we possess. It is easily reconciled with the account given by Mr. Shaw, who describes Atlas as a series consisting of many ranges of hills successively increasing in elevation, and terminating in steep and inaccessible peaks.* But it is worthy of remark, that the great and little Atlas of Ptolemy, the one of which is terminated at Cape Felneh, and the other at Cape Cantin, differ from the chains of the French traveller, being lateral branches which go off from the main system, to form promontories on the sea coast. Another question is, whether is the principal chain continued without interruption to the east of the smaller Syrtæ? or do the mountains of Tripoli, of Fezzan, and of Barca, form separate systems? The Arabian geographers seem inclined to the former opinion,† and no person is prepared to contradict them. They tell us

Great and small chains.

Extension of Atlas.

* Shaw's Travels and Observations, p. 5.

† Abulfeda. See Busching's Magasin, Geogr. t. IV. p. 418. Hartmann, Edrisi, Geogr. p. 143, 144.

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that "Mount Daran extends eastward from Sus in Morocco, joins the mountains of Tripoli, and then is lost in a plain." These expressions are not inconsistent with the belief that Atlas is completely terminated on the South of the Great Syrtæ, from whence it is probable that a low lying territory extends a great way into the interior.

The great height of Mount Atlas is proved by the perpetual snows which cover its summits in the east part of Morocco, under the latitude of 32°* According to Humboldt's principles, these summits must be 12,000 feet above the level of the sea. Leo Africanus, who travelled here in the month of October, narrowly escaped being buried in an avalanche of snow. In the state of Algiers, the snow disappears on the tops of Jurjura and of Felizia in the month of May, and covers them again before the end of September.† The Wanashisre, situated in 35° 55′, and forming an intermediate chain between the maritime one and that of the interior, is covered with a mantle of snow nearly the whole of the year.‡ Even to the east, where the elevation appears to diminish, the Gariano, or Garean mountains to the south of Tripoli, are covered with snow for three months.

Nature of the rocks.

The ingredients of the rocks have not been sufficiently investigated. In the parts belonging to Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco, which were visited by M. Desfontaines, the chain of the Atlas is formed of limestone,§ and this gentleman adds that he found in the mountains large heaps of shells and marine bodies, at a great distance from the sea; a phenomenon noticed by all modern travellers,‖ and which also struck the less observant minds of the an-

* Hæst's Account of Morocco, p. 78. (German translation.) Chenier Histoire de Maroc.

† Relation du royaume d'Alger, (Altona, 1798.) t. I. p. 152.

‡ Ibidem, 249.

§ Flora Atlantica, preface, p. 3.

‖ Shaw's Travels, p. 470. Poiret, Voyage en Barbarie, II. p. 279.

cients.* Some of the elegant marbles of Numidia, exhausted by Roman luxury, were of a uniform yellow, others were spotted with various colours.† The Carthaginians employed them previously to the Romans, for constructing pavements in mosaic. But the copper, iron, lead, and other mines, worked in Morocco and Algiers, show the existence of schistous or granitic rocks. M. Poiret informs us, that in the neighbourhood of Bana, a maritime town of the kingdom of Algiers, the rocks are of quartz mixed with mica,‡ and Shaw mentions that a sort of sandstone is employed for building in Algiers.§ The hills which terminate the Atlas in the desert of Barca, are calcareous masses surrounded by a crest of basalt. Such at least is the case with the mountain of Harutch, observed by Hornemann. According to Pliny, the sides of the Atlas which look toward the Western Ocean, that is, the south sides, raise their arid and dark masses abruptly from the bosom of a sea of sand, while the more gentle northern declivity is adorned with beautiful forests and verdant pastures.‖

Hypothesis of M. Ideler on the Atlas of the ancients.

But was the chain of mountains now described really the Atlas of the ancients? This is denied by a learned German, who reasons in the following manner.

"In the earliest periods of history the Phenicians ventured to pass the Strait of Gibraltar. On the shores of the Atlantic they founded Gades and Tartessus in Spain, and Lixus and several other cities in Mauritania. From these settlements they navigated northward to the coast of Prussia, where they found amber. In the south they proceeded beyond Madeira to the islands of Cape Verd.—They frequented, most especially, the archipelago of the Canaries. Here they were astonished at the sight of the Peak of Teneriffe, the height of which, in itself very great,

The Atlas of the Phenicians.

* Strabo's Geography, XVII. at the end.

† Pliny and Isidorus. Compared in the notes of Justus Lipsius on Seneca's Epistles.

‡ Poiret, II. p. 277.

§ Shaw, p. 152.

‖ Pliny, V. cap. 1.

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appears still greater by shooting up immediately from the flat surface of the ocean. The colonies which they sent to Greece, and most especially that which, under the conduct of Cadmus, settled in Bæotia, brought to these countries some information respecting that mountain which towered above the region of the clouds, and the Happy Islands over which it presides, embellished with oranges, called in their phraseology, golden apples. This tradition, propagated over Greece by the verses of the poets, was handed down to the era of Homer. His Atlas has its foundation in the depths of the ocean, and lofty pillars reaching from earth to heaven.* The Elysian Fields† are described as an enchanting country, situated somewhere in the west.—Hesiod speaks of Atlas in a similar style, describing that personage as the near neighbour of the Hesperian nymphs.‡ He calls the Happy Islands the Elysian Fields, and places them at the western extremity of the earth.§ Later poets added new embellishments to the fables of Atlas and the Hesperides, their golden apples, and the Islands of the Blessed, describing them as the destined habitation of the righteous after death. With these they have connected the expeditions of Melicertes, the Tyrian god of commerce, and those of the Grecian Hercules. It was at a comparatively late period that the Greeks began to rival the Carthaginians and Phenicians in navigation. They visited the shores of the Atlantic Ocean, yet it does not appear that their voyages in that ocean were greatly extended. It is doubtful whether or not they ever saw the Peak of Teneriffe and the Canary Islands, for they thought it necessary to search on the west coast of Africa for the Atlas which their poets and their traditions had represented to them as a very lofty moun-

The Atlas of Homer.

* Odyssey, Book I. verse 52.

† Iliad, Book IV. v. 561. The word is of Phenician origin, and signifies the abode of joy—(A note by M. Ideler.)

‡ Theogonia, lib. V. v. 517.

§ Opera et Dies, v. 167.

tain situated at the western extremity of the earth. It is thus that Strabo, Ptolemy, and other geographers, have altered its position. But since there is not found in the north-west of Africa any mountain of remarkable height"—(this is a mistake)—"much difficulty arose in recognising the true position of Atlas. Sometimes search was made for it on the coast, sometimes in the interior of the country, sometimes near the Mediterranean sea, sometimes farther to the south. In the first century of our era, when the Romans carried their arms into the interior of Mauritania and Numidia, the habit sprung up of giving the name of Atlas to the chain of mountains in the north of Africa, which extends from east to west, in a direction nearly parallel to the coast of the Mediterranean. Pliny and Solinus perceived that the descriptions of Atlas given by the Greek and Roman poets did not apply to this chain of mountains. They, therefore, thought it necessary to find in the unknown part of central Africa a locality for this Peak, of which, while they copied poetical traditions, they drew so agreeable a picture. But the Atlas of Homer and Hesiod can only be the Peak of Teneriffe, while the Atlas of the Greek or the Roman geographers must be found in the north of Africa."*

Objections to this hypothesis.

This reasoning we cannot consider as well founded. The passages referred to in Homer, Hesiod, and Herodotus, are extremely vague. The Atlas of Herodotus might be a promontory of the southern chain, rising from the plains of the desert, such as Mount Saluban in Bildulgerid appears to be. It agrees with the distances assigned by this historian. It is besides possible, that all these contradictions may owe their origin to that optical illusion by which a chain of mountains seen in profile has the appearance of a narrow peak. "When at sea," says Humboldt, "I have often mistaken long chains for isolated

* Ideler, in M. de Humboldt's Tableaux de la Nature, I. p. 141, &c. trad. de M. Eyriés. Compare Bory Saint-Vincent, Essai sur les Iles Fortunées. p. 427.

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mountains." This explanation might be still further simplified, if it were admitted that the name of Atlas belonged originally to a promontory remarkable for form and its peculiar isolated situation, such as most of those on the coast of Morocco. A curious passage in Maximus Tyrius seems to countenance this hypothesis: "The Ethiopian Hesperians," says he,* "worship Mount Atlas, who is both their temple and their idol. The Atlas is a mountain of moderate elevation, concave, and open towards the sea in the form of an amphitheatre. Half way from the mountain a great valley extends, which is very remarkably fertile and adorned with richly laden fruit trees. The eye plunges into this valley as into a deep well, but the precipice is too steep for any person to venture to descend, and the descent is prohibited by feelings of religious awe. The most wonderful thing is to see the waves of the ocean at high water overspreading the adjoining plains, but stopping short before Mount Atlas, and standing up like a wall, without penetrating into the hollow of the valley, though not restrained by any earthy barrier. Nothing but the air and the sacred thicket prevent the water from reaching the mountain. Such is the temple and the god of the Libyans; such is the object of their worship and the witness of their oaths." In the physical delineations contained in this account we perceive some features of resemblance to the coast between Cape Tefelneh and Cape Geer, which resembles an amphitheatre crowned with a series of detached rocks.† In the moral description, we find traces of fetichism; rocks remarkable for their shape being still worshipped by some negro tribes.

Passage in Maximus Tyrius.

Leaving these dubious questions to the sagacity of authors who make them a subject of express research, we shall

Description of the region of Mount Atlas.

* Max. Tyr. Dissertat. XXXVIII. p. 457, 458. edit. Oxon. è theatro Sheldon.

† Dalzel, Instruction sur les côtes d'Afrique, Trad. Manuscrite, avec Notes, par M. Mallard Dubecé.

now give a view of the actual physical geography of the region of Mount Atlas.

Vegetation.

The fertility of this part of Africa was celebrated by Strabo and Pliny. The latter extolled its figs,* olives,† corn,‡ and valuable woods.§ He observed that the wines had a certain sharpness, which was corrected by adding to them a little plaster,‖ and says that the vineyards had a northern and western exposure.¶ Strabo says that the vine trunks were sometimes so thick that two men could scarcely clasp them round, and that the clusters were a cubit in length.** A horrible government, and a total absence of civilization, have not succeeded in annihilating these bounties of nature. Barbary and Morocco still export large quantities of grain. The olive tree is superior here to that of Provence,†† and the Moors, notwithstanding the hostility to Bacchus which marks their religion, cultivate seven varieties of the vine. The soil of the plains in many places resembles that of the rest of Africa, being light and sandy, and containing numerous rocks: but the valleys of Mount Atlas, and those of the rivulets which descend from it to the Mediterranean, are covered with a compact, fertile, and well watered soil. Hence, the most common native plants flourish on their banks, or strike their roots deep into the moveable sands, while the rarest species grow in the marshes and the forests. The arid shores are covered with numerous saline and succulent plants, such as the *Salsola* and *Salicornia*, the *Pancratium maritimum*, and the *Scilla maritima*, with different species of hardy long-rooted plants, among which are the *Lygeum spartum*, the *Panicum humidum*, the *Saccharum cylindricum*, and the *Agrostis pungens*, mixed here and there with the *Heliotropium* and *Soldanella*.‡‡ The dry and rocky table-lands which lie between the

Vegetation of the table-land.

* Pliny, lib. XV. cap. 18.
† Pliny, lib. XVII. cap. 12.
‡ Idem, lib. XVIII. cap. 7.
§ Idem, lib. XIII. cap. 15—19.
‖ Idem, lib. XIV. cap. 9.
¶ Idem, lib. XVII. cap. 2.
** Strabo, lib. XVII. p. 568.
†† Poiret, Voyage, II. p. 81.
‡‡ Desfontaines, Flora Atlantica. Poiret, Voyage en Barbarie, *passim*.

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valleys of the interior greatly resemble the downs *(landes)* of Spain. They abound in scattered groves of cork trees, and evergreen oaks, under whose shadow sage, lavender, and other aromatic plants grow in great abundance, and rise to an extraordinary height. The tall-stemmed *Genista*, the different species of *cistus*, mignonette, sumac, broom, *agave*, and many species of *euphorbium* and *cactus*, adorn the windings and clefts of the rocks, where, braving the heat and drought, they furnish a shade and a wholesome food for the goats.

The forests.

The forests which cover the sides of the fertile mountains in the northern parts of these countries are, according to M. Desfontaines, composed of different species of oaks, as the *Quercus ilex*, *coccifera*, and *Ballota*, the acorns of which form part of the food of the inhabitants. The mastic tree, the *Pistacia Atlantica*, the *Thuya articulata*, and the *Rhus pentaphyllum*, are frequently found here. The large cypress, like a verdant pyramid, stretches its branches towards heaven; the wild olive yields excellent fruit without culture. The *Arbutus unedo* bears a red fruit resembling strawberries. The tall broom tree diffuses widely its delightful perfumes. All the valleys that have a moderate elevation form in April and May so many little Elysiums. The shade, the coolness, the bright verdure, the diversity of the flowers, and the mixture of agreeable odours, combine to charm the senses of the botanist, who, amidst such scenes, might forget his native country, were he not shocked and alarmed by the barbarity of the inhabitants.* On the coasts and in the plains, the orange-tree, the myrtle, the lupine, the virgin's bower, and the *narcissus*, are, in the month of January, covered with flowers and young leaves. But in June, July, August, and September, the parched and cracked soil is only covered with the yellow remains of dead and withering plants. The cork tree darkens the forest with the gloom of its scorched bark. Yet at this season,† the rose-bay

Flowers.

* Poiret, II. p. 71. † Poiret, p. 129.

displays its bright flowers on the banks of all the torrents and rivers, from the tops of the mountains down to the deepest valleys.

Alimentary plants.

Among the cultivated plants are hard wheat, barley, maize, the *Holcus sorghum*, and the *Holcus saccharatus*; rice in the lands capable of being inundated, tobacco, dates, olives, figs, almonds, vines, apricots, jujubes, melons, pumpkins, saffron, the white mulberry, the *Indigofera glauca*, and the sugar-cane. The gardens yield almost all the species of pulse known in Europe. The inhabitants of these countries preserve their grain for several years, by burying it in large holes in dry situations. Wheat is sown in autumn, and gathered in April or May. Maize and *sorghum* are sown in spring, and cut down in summer.* Oats grow spontaneously.† Some of the fruits, such as the fig,‡ are inferior in quality to those of Europe: but the acorns of the oak taste like our chesnuts.§

Animal kingdom.

The animal kingdom comprehends most of the species known in the rest of Africa; we must except from these the rhinoceros, the hippopotamus, the giraffe, the zebra, and several of the monkeys.

Camel of the Desert.

Nature has supplied the inhabitants of the desert of Zahara with the means of crossing the immense deserts of western Africa in a few days. Mounted on the *heiree*, or camel of the desert, which resembles the dromedary, and is only distinguished from it by greater elegance of figure, the Arab, after tying up his loins, his breast, and his ears, to protect himself from the blasts of a dangerous wind, traverses with the speed of an arrow that burning desert, the fiery atmosphere of which deeply affects respiration, and is almost sufficient to suffocate any unwary traveller. The motions of this animal are so harsh and violent, that no person could bear them without all the patience, the abstinence, and toilsome habits of the

* Desfontaines, Flora Atlantica.

† Shaw, p. 138.

‡ Poiret, II. p. 267.

§ Hœst, p. 305.

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Arabs. The most indifferent variety of these camels is called *talayeh*, a term denoting that the animal cannot accomplish more than three ordinary days journeys in a day. The most abundant variety called *sebay* can make out seven. There is a kind which accomplishes nine, and is called *tasay*, but these are exceedingly rare, and bring enormous prices. The Arab in his figurative phraseology thus describes the swiftness of the camel of the desert—"When you meet a *heiree*, and say to the rider *salem alik*, (peace be with you,) he is out of sight before he can return the *alik salem*, for he flies like the wind." Mr. Jackson relates facts on this subject which are almost incredible. A heiree arrived at Senegal in seven days from Mogadore, having traversed 14 degrees of latitude, and, including the windings of the road, had travelled 1000, or 1100 English miles, making 150 in a day. A Moor of Mogadore mounted his heiree in the morning, went to Morocco, which is 100 English miles off, and returned in the evening of the same day with a parcel of oranges, for which one of his women had longed. Mr. Jackson allows that these facts put the faith of the reader to a severe test; but three older travellers give similar accounts. It is at the same time added, that camels of this quality are but few.* Geography might receive some interesting accessions, if Europeans, well armed, and in sufficient number, could procure these fleet creatures, and learn to ride them, in order to explore the deserts of northern Africa. Asses are also used, and are of two sorts, the one strong and large, the other very small. Morocco produces fine horses of the Arabian breed. In the whole of Barbary the cattle are small and lean; the cows give little milk, and that of an unpleasant taste.—Goats and sheep are plenty. Pigs being held in abhorrence among Mahometans, are only found in the houses of Europeans. Cats, dogs, and European poultry are common. The Arabs breed a great many bees.†

Degrees of swiftness.

Other domestic animals.

* Hœst's Account of Morocco, translated from Danish into German, p. 289. Shaw's Travels in Barbary, p. 157. Lemprière's Travels.

† Nachrichten und Bemerkungen uber Algier, &c. t. III.

Wild animals.

The panther has in all periods been a famous animal, but it is only within these few years that he has been described with precision.* The ounce and leopard of Buffon seem to be the panther at different ages; yet it would be rash to expunge them at once from the list of quadrupeds. The *bubalus*, an animal of the antelope kind, belongs to the deserts of the north of Africa. It lives in a gregarious state, and flocks of them come to the marshes and canals of Egypt to assuage their thirst. The hieroglyphics in the temples of Upper Egypt contain several figures evidently representing this animal. Among the other animals of the same genus common in these countries, the pasan is the most frequent, then the corinna gazelle, which differs very little from the *kevel*, or proper gazelle.† In the forests and deserts are found the elephant, the lion, the African bear, two species of the hyæna, the ferret, which lives in the bushes, and some apes, among which are the old man and the baboon. According to a conjecture of M. Walckenaer, the rats seen by Windhus the traveller, in the neighbourhood of Mequinez, "rats as large as rabbits, and which like them burrow in the earth," were *arctomys gundi*, a kind of marmots. It has been disputed whether there are any bears in Africa. The learned Cuvier doubts their existence in such southerly latitudes, but Baldéus, a well informed writer, says that he saw them in Ceylon.‡ It cannot be denied, that two grave authors, Herodotus and Strabo, assert the existence of the bear in Africa, distinguishing him from the lion and from the panther. Dion, or his abridger Xiphilin, makes a similar assertion; Virgil, Juvenal, and Martial might be quoted to the same effect.§ Aristotle does not expressly exclude the bear from Africa.‖ On these

Description of the bears of Africa.

* Cuvier, Ménagerie du Muséum, article Panther.

† Idem, ibid. art. Corinne.

‡ Zimmermann, Geographische Geschichte, &c.

§ Salmasii, Exercitationes Plinianæ, I. p. 223.

‖ Hist. Animalium, VIII. p. 28.

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accounts we ought not yet to reject the testimony of modern travellers, who maintain the existence of this animal in the high parts of Mount Atlas, only acknowledging that it cannot be very common.*

Ostrich hunting.

Ostrich hunting is a curious amusement of this country. Twenty Arabs mounted on the horses of the desert, which are as transcendant among horses as the heiree is among camels, proceed to windward in quest of an ostrich track, and when they have found one, follow it in a body with the utmost rapidity, keeping at the distance of half a mile from one another. The ostrich, fatigued with running against the wind, which beats against his wings, turns about to the hunters and attempts to penetrate their line; but they surround him, and all at once fire on the bird, when he falls. Without this address they could never take the ostrich, which, though deprived of the power of flying, surpasses in running the swiftest animals.

The south wind brings along with it clouds of locusts, which, by devastating the fields, create famines, and often cover the ground so completely, as to make a traveller lose his way.† The wild bee fills the trunks of the trees with aromatic honey, and with wax, which are gathered by the inhabitants in great abundance.‡

Inhabitants.

To the preceding physical delineation, which is applicable to the States of Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco, we shall subjoin an equally general view of the inhabitants.

The Moors.

The inhabitants of the towns and cultivated plains are distinguished by the name of Moors. Though they speak a dialect of the Arabic, abounding in expressions peculiar to themselves, their physical constitution, their complexion, which is whiter than that of the Arabs, their counten-

* Poiret, II. p. 238. Shaw, p. 177. Hœst, p. 291.

† Hœst, p. 300. Agrell, Lettres sur le Maroc, p. 319.

‡ Poiret, I. p. 324. Hœst, p. 303.

ance, which is more full, the less elevated nose, and less expressive physiognomy, seem to show that they are descended from a mixture of the ancient Mauritanians and Numidians, with the Phenicians, Romans, and Arabians.—Since Sallust asserts, that the Numidians and Mauritanians had sprung from an Asiatic colony, composed of Medes, Armenians, and Persians,* it would be an interesting thing to examine thoroughly the characteristic idioms of the Moorish language.† The accounts given by European travellers make the moral character of this nation a compound of every vice. Avaricious and debauched, blood-thirsty and effeminate, greedy yet idle, revengeful yet fawning, they do not redeem these vices by a single good quality: But may we not suppose that the hatred which the Moors have vowed against their Christian persecutors, ever since they were driven out of Spain, has excited corresponding feelings among our travellers? The Moors are Mahometans, and belong chiefly to the fanatical sect called Maleki. They, like the fanatics of many other religions, consider their piety as compensating for every moral defect, and heresy as a stain which can scarcely be rendered more tolerable by the brightest assemblage of moral virtues.—They have among them many saints; some distinguished by their absolute inaction, others by a turbulent and mischievous insanity. These last have been seen to knock down an ass, and devour the flesh, still reeking and bloody.‡ Several of the emperor's horses have been raised to the dignity of saintship: one, in particular, when Commodore Stewart was there,§ was held in such reverence by the monarch, that any person who had committed the most enormous crime, or had even killed a prince of the blood royal, was perfectly secure as soon as he laid hold of the sainted animal. Several Christian captives had by this manœuvre saved

Moorish fanaticism.

* Sallust in Jugurtha.

† Norberg, Disput. de gente et lingua Marocano, Lund, in Scania, 1787.

‡ Bruns, Afrika, VI. p. 126.

§ Windhus's Journey of Mequinez, (London, 1723.)

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their lives. When his majesty intended to confer a signal mark of favour, he and his horse drank successively from the same bowl, and then caused it to be handed to the distinguished individual. These people are addicted in an uncommon degree to a superstitious belief in the influence of evil eyes. An emperor of Morocco kept his son in a state of rigorous confinement, to preserve him from that fatal influence. One part of their marriage ceremonies is to make a solemn procession for the express purpose of ascertaining the purity of the betrothed maid. In no part of the world do the men discover more sensitive jealousy, both before and after wedlock. In Morocco, and through the whole interior, the Moors are temperate in their eating, and simple in their dress, but in Tunis and Algiers the women wear elegant dresses, glittering with gold and diamonds.* The whiteness of their skin is only discovered by their bare feet. To be able to read the Alcoran is in the eyes of most Moors the summit of polite learning. They have also their astrologers, and they are fond of history and poetry. Their square flat-roofed houses are sometimes ornamented in the interior with rich carpets and salient fountains. Horse-exercises, and shooting-matches, with feats of rope-dancing, form their favourite pastimes. At their funerals, a long train of women, paid for crying and howling, accompanies the dead bodies to their tombs.

Arabs.

The nomade Arabs, who brought hither the Mahometan religion from Asia, preserve the purity of their race, which is distinguished by a more masculine physiognomy, more lively eyes, and almost olive complexions. Their women, destitute of personal attractions, enjoy a great degree of freedom. There would be no use, indeed, in concealing their brown and haggard countenances, which operate rather as antidotes than incitements to guilty passions. The women of some tribes ingrain black lines and figures

* Nachrichten, &c. An Account of Algiers, I. p. 493. Altona. 1798.

on their cheeks and bosoms.* The tents of the Arabs, covered with a coarse stuff, or with palm leaves, have preserved the form of an inverted boat, which, according to Sallust, was that of the *mapalia* of the Numidians.† They call a cabin of this kind *shaima*, and a group of them forms a *duar*, or hamlet, which is in the form of a ring, with the Sheik's house in the centre, and is frequently surrounded with a thorn hedge, as a defence against the lions which roar around them. The number of these Arabs in the empire of Morocco alone is sometimes estimated at 40,000. The Arabs as well as the Moors send caravans of pilgrims to Mecca. In Asia both these classes of people are comprehended under the name of Magrebi, or Mogrebbins, a term which signifies "people of the west."

The Berbers.

The Berbers, who are totally distinct from the Arabs and the Moors, seem to be the indigenous race of northern Africa. They probably comprehend the remains of the ancient *Getulæ* to the west of Mount Atlas, and of the Libyans to the east.‡ They form at present four distinct nations. 1. The Amazirgh, called by the Moors *Shilla*, or Shulla, in the mountains of Morocco. 2. The Cabyls, in the mountains of Algiers and Tunis. 3. The Tibbos, in the desert between Fezzan and Egypt; and, 4. The Tooariks in the great desert. The identity of the language spoken by these different tribes, which is perceived by a comparison of their vocabularies,§ is one of the most important discoveries made in ethnographic history. This language has not hitherto been found to show any analogy to that of the Barabras of Nubia, or of the Shillooks of Abyssinia, but it is not impossible that farther researches may discover a connection. The Berber language, which the Amazirgh call the *Tamazeght*, and the Cabyls, *Showia*,

* Agrell, p. 39, German translation.

† On the etymology of this word, see Bochart, Canaan, l. II. cap. 9.

‡ Mithridates, by Adelung and Vater, III. p. 45.

§ Hœst's Account of Morocco, (in Danish,) p. 128. Jones's Dissertation de lingua Shillensi in the Dissertat. ex Occas. Sylloges, &c. Amsterd. 1715. Shaw's Travels, p. 52. Hornemann. Marsden. Venture.

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seems to us to have quite an original character, though approaching to the Hebrew and the Phenician. The Berbers have a complexion of mixed red and black, a tall and handsome form, of spare habits, and a lean body.* In religious fanaticism they surpass even the Moors. When an opportunity is presented they occasionally gratify their antipathies by shedding the blood of Jews and of Christians. The Shillahs, however, eat the flesh of the wild boar, and drink wine. The Maraboots, who are honoured as a sort of saints, exercise in many of the Kabyl villages a despotic authority. These hypocrites distribute amulets, and affect to work miracles. Two of the most eminent of these at present in Morocco are Sidi Hamet and Sidi Alarbi, and hardly any thing is done in that empire without consulting them. Though they are considered as endued with the gift of prophecy and of miracles, they are not distinguished in the least degree by personal austerity or self-denial. In their respective districts no tribute is paid but to them. With their revenues and the valuable offerings which they continually receive, they support an armed force, with which they are always surrounded, and maintain a liberal establishment of wives and concubines, without incurring the slightest abatement from the sanctity of their character. In other situations, especially among the Shillahs, there are sheiks who rule the small tribes into which the nation is divided. Those who live in the high valleys of the Atlas are almost entirely independent. In Morocco some tribes have joined together under princes or hereditary kings, called *Amargar*, whose patriarchal authority extends no farther than to the punishment of theft and murder. They manufacture their own gunpowder. Their meals consist of brown bread, olives, and water. The poverty and dirtiness of their dress give them a most savage appearance. Yet the Berbers manifest, in the cultivation of their fertile fields, a laborious disposition, and a degree of intelligence which might be turned to good ac-

The Maraboots.

* Hœst, p. 141. Lemprière, Chenier, Shaw, &c.

count. They furnish the indolent Moors with wheat, olives, and all sorts of provisions. Their villages, some of which may, for size and population, be called towns, are fortified with watch-towers, from which they can spy the approach of an enemy. On the slightest signal all the men are in arms. They handle the musket with much skill, tossing it in the air, catching it again, and discharging it with astonishing accuracy and rapidity.

Besides these genuine African nations, the northern part of this continent contains some foreign colonists, among whom are the Turks, the masters of Algiers, and once of Tunis and Tripoli, and the Jews, who are spread over the whole of Barbary, even among the valleys of the Kabyls.

This country, though one of the most salubrious, and the most propitious to the multiplication of the human race, is, in consequence of the absence of a regular government, exposed to calamitous visitations, and particularly to the ravages of the plague. Mr. Jackson, British consul at Mogadore, has drawn a horrible picture of a plague, which, some years ago, depopulated the empire of Morocco. The deaths in the city of Morocco amounted to 50,000, those at Fez to 65,000, at Mogadore to 4500, and at Saffi to 5000. The survivors had not time to bury the dead with any regularity. The bodies were thrown into large trenches, which, when nearly full, were covered over with earth. The young, the healthy, and the vigorous, were first attacked; then the women and children; and last of all, the lean, the exhausted, the valetudinary, and the aged. When the scourge disappeared, a total revolution was found to have taken place in the fortunes and situation of individuals. Some who had previously been plain mechanics, now found themselves in possession of large capitals, and sometimes purchased horses which they scarcely knew how to mount. Provisions were sold in great abundance and extremely cheap. Flocks, with their shepherds, wandered in the pastures without owners. Great temptations were thus presented to the Arab, the Berber, and the Moor, all equally prone to theft. But they were restrained by an appre-

Description of a plague.

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hension for their lives: for the plague, *(el khere,)* is believed by them to be a divine judgment in punishment of their crimes. It was, therefore, imperiously necessary to avoid being caught by the avenging angel in the flagrant act, and rather to regulate their conduct so as to prepare themselves for paradise. The price of labour was soon out of all bounds; and as the number of persons capable of working was not sufficient to supply the demands of the rich who were able to pay them, the latter found themselves under the necessity of performing little domestic offices with their own hands. They ground corn and baked bread, and the simplicity of the golden age seemed to spring up in this recommencement of the organization of society. Many large estates which remained without owners were seized by the Arabs of the desert.*

* Jackson's Account of the Empire of Morocco. London, 1809.

# BOOK LXV.

## THE BARBARY STATES, AND THE GREAT DESERT OF ZAHARA.

### PART II.

*Detailed Descriptions.*



In the preceding Book we have delineated the physical geography and ethnography of the whole Atlantic regions. We must now take a view of the different states or kingdoms of Barbary, and the cities and towns included in these political divisions. We shall first turn our attention to the small states scattered over the desert which bounds Egypt on the west. Then passing the *Syrtæ*, we shall follow the chain of Mount Atlas, giving an account of the States of Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco, and conclude with a description of the Great Desert of Zahara.

The desert or kingdom of Barca.

The country of Barca is the first that comes in our way on leaving Egypt. Some call Barca a *desert*, and the interior certainly merits that name; others call it a *kingdom*, an appellation founded on the existence of this country as the independent kingdom of *Cyrené*, governed by a branch of the Ptolemies. The coast of Barca, once famed for its threefold crops,* is now very ill cultivated; the wandering tribes of the desert allow no rest to the inhabitants, or

* See Herodotus and Strabo, and our volume on the History of Geography.

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security to their labours. The sovereignty of it is divided between two Beys, one of whom resides at Derne, a town surrounded with gardens, and watered by refreshing rivulets: his subjects may amount to 30,000 tents or families. The other lives at Bengazi, a town of 10,000 houses, with a tolerable harbour, on a shore abounding with fish, and in a fertile territory, from which much wool is exported. The Bey of Tripoli appoints these two governors, whose obedience to his authority is often ambiguous.* Among the magnificent ruins of *Cyrené*, the limpid spring still flows from which the city had its name. A tribe of Arabs pitches its tents amidst its sadly mutilated statues, and falling colonnades. Tolometa, or the ancient *Ptolemais*, the port of Barca, preserves its ancient walls, a temple, and some inscriptions. This coast seems to hold out an invitation to European colonies; it seems to be the property of no government or people. A colony established here would rediscover those beautiful places which the ancients surnamed the Hills of the Graces, and the Gardens of the Hesperides. Such, however, is the latent rivalry of the civilized world, in matters connected with power and vanity, and the phantoms attached to the ideas of national greatness, and even national existence, that the most beneficent efforts of any people are liable to be resisted by the jealousy of another of equal pretensions.

Ruins of Cyrené.

The travels of the intrepid Hornemann have procured for us a little information respecting the countries situated beyond Barca. A chain of mountains runs west from the Natron Lakes as we leave Egypt, and taking successively the names of Mokarra and Gulsdoba, extends to the oasis of Audjelah, being about four miles in length. These mountains are calcareous, naked, and precipitous. At their feet we pass over a flat marshy country, from one to

* Lemaire, consul Français, Voyage dans les Montagnes de Derne, dans le deuxième Voyage de Paul Lucas, II. p. 110, &c.

six miles broad, and abounding in springs. Following these mountains westward, we first arrive at the oasis of Siwah, which forms a small independent state. The inhabitants speak the Tibbo dialect of the Berber language. This is the country of Ammon of the ancients. The ruins of Oummibida seem to belong to a fortified caravansera, connected with the temple of Jupiter Ammon. They contain some hieroglyphics in relief. Their materials consist of a limestone brought from the adjoining mountains, containing petrified shells and marine animals. Diodorus speaks of the temple situated in the port as distinct from that of the forest near the fountain of the sun.* The arable territory of the oasis of Siwah is about six miles long and four broad. The chief plantations consist of date trees; there are also pomegranates, fig trees, olives, apricots, and bananas. A considerable quantity of a reddish grained rice is cultivated here, being a different variety from that which is grown in the Egyptian Delta. It also produces wheat for the consumption of the inhabitants. Abundance of water, both fresh and salt, is found. The fresh water springs are mostly warm, and are accused of giving rise to dangerous fevers, when used by strangers.† The population of Siwah is capable of furnishing about 1500 armed men. This country is the Santariah of Abulfeda, and the Saut-Ryah of Edrisi. According to Ebn-Ayas, an Arabian author, the zebra is met with in the adjoining deserts.‡

Oasis of Siwah.

From Siwah to Audjelah, the mountains rise in peaks from the midst of the plain. The naked rock is not covered with a particle of soil, or even with sand. A sandy plain at the bottom of the mountains, presents on its surface an immense horizontal calcareous bank, which contains no traces of petrifaction, while the adjacent mountains, al-

* Diodorus, edit. Wessel, p. 539.

† Voyage de Browne, t. I. p. 34. de la trad. Française.

‡ Langlès, Mémoire sur les Oases.

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so calcareous, are full of the remains of marine animals and shells. These are also met with here in large isolated heaps.

The oasis of Audjelah

The oasis of Audjelah, the Augila of Herodotus, contains three towns or villages, and is the residence of a bey, who is dependent on the bey of Tripoli. The town of Audjelah is only a mile in circumference, and contains only three narrow and dirty streets of mean houses built of limestone. The public buildings have a most wretched aspect. At Audjelah is the termination of the long chain of mountains which bounds the desert of Barca on the south, and separates it from that of Libya, turning west to Fezzan. A little beyond this we find another chain called Maraï, of the extent and direction of which we know but little, only that it appears to send off ramifications to the north.

The desert of Haroodjeh.

Then we find the singular hilly desert called Haroodjé, which is probably the *Mons ater* of Pliny. It commences at two or three days' journey from Audjelah, reaches the mountains by which Fezzan is bounded, and is prolonged to the north of Fezzan; but the branches which it forms in this direction, and those also to the south, are less known. Haroodjeh presents a mass of broken mountains, mostly bare and sterile, composed of black basalt. Their appearance is volcanic and exceedingly wild. In several places the ranges of basalt alternate with others of limestone. The low calcareous hills bounding the plains are composed of petrifactions, which consist mostly of the heads of fishes.

It is probably in Haroodjé that the solution will one day be found of the enigma of the Arabian geographers, respecting a town, which they call Raz Sem, the inhabitants of which were turned into stone. Shaw and Bruce did not penetrate so far as to procure information deserving of reliance. The tradition has the appearance of concealing under it a curious fact, the existence of mummies in some *Necropolis*, or city of the dead, like those of Egypt.

Fabulous town.

Fezzan.

From the Haroodjé we enter Fezzan. Major Rennel and the learned Larcher consider Fezzan as the ancient

country of the *Garamantes;* a point still, however, very doubtful, as we have shown in our History of Geography.

Fezzan is bounded by the state of Tripoli on the north, by the desert of Barca on the east, and by the great desert of Zahara on the west and south. The greatest length of the cultivated country, from north to south, is about 255 miles, and its greatest breadth 200 miles from east to west; but the mountainous region of Haroodjeh is comprehended in its territory. According to Hornemann, this small state contains 100 towns and villages, of which Moorzook is the capital. Sakna, Wadan, and Germah, are the names of others, the last of which resembles the ancient *Garama.* There is also Zooilah, which, according to old travellers, contained magnificent ruins, but none such were seen by Hornemann. During the south wind the heat here is scarcely supportable even to the inhabitants, who then sprinkle their rooms over with water, in order to be able to breathe. The winter is not so mild as might be expected, owing to a cold and piercing north wind, which completely chilled the inhabitants while Hornemann was there, and obliged this traveller himself, though inured to a cold climate, to draw near a fire.* Rains here are infrequent and scanty. Hurricanes sometimes blow from the north, darkening the atmosphere with clouds of dust and sand. Climate.

In the whole country there is no river or stream worthy of notice. The soil is a deep sand covering rocks, and sometimes calcareous or argillaceous earth. There are numerous springs, which supply water for the purpose of agriculture. The whole of Fezzan, indeed, abounds in water, at a moderate depth underground, derived, no doubt, from the rains which fall on hills more or less distant, perhaps on the confines of the desert, and though absorbed by the sand, find their level among the loose strata, across a broad extent of desert, till they become accessible in Fez- Soil and productions.

* Proceedings of the African Association, vol. I.

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zan, and impart to this country its characteristic fertility. Dates are the natural produce and the staple commodity of Fezzan. Figs, pomegranates, and lemons, also succeed. A great quantity of maize and barley is cultivated; but the inhabitants do not raise wheat sufficient for their own consumption, and receive a great part of what they use from the Arabs. Some ascribe this to their indolence; but remarks of that kind are often gratuitous conclusions, arising from a deficient comprehension of the principles of wealth and commerce. If the inhabitants are indolent, how do they contrive to procure an equivalent to give to these Arabs for their wheat? The latter may feed them because they are rich, but not simply because they are unwilling to work. Such facts, if they authorize any inference on the subject, would rather incline us to think that the industry of the people was such as to produce a population greater than the food produced in the country is able to maintain, or that a produce of a more delicate kind was given by them to the importing Arabs, in exchange for an article which goes farther for the purposes of nutriment. Fezzan abounds in pulse and culinary vegetables. The most common domestic animal is the goat. Sheep are reared in the southern parts. The ass is their beast of burden and draught. Camels are extremely scarce and high priced. All these animals are fed on dates or date-stones. In the province of Mendrah, natron floats in large masses on the surfaces of several lakes, over which a dense fog is frequently seen to hover.

The Fezzanese send caravans to Tripoli, Tombuctoo, and Bornoo. They trade in gold dust and black slaves. They are acquainted with the cowrie shell, or *cyphræa moneta*, a circumstance which shows that their commercial relations extend to the coast of Guinea.* From October to February, Moorzook is the great mart and rendezvous of the different caravans which come from Cairo, Bengazi, Tripoli, Gadames, Tooat, and Soodan.

* Brun's Afrika, V. p. 315.

According to some, the sultan of this country is tributary to the Bey of Tripoli;* according to others, he only sends him a present.† According to Hornemann his revenues arise from his landed estates, others mention three or four moderate taxes. The population of Fezzan is estimated by Hornemann at 60,000 or 70,000 souls. The variety of their complexion shows that they are a mixed people. The indigenous race is of middling stature, of little vigour, with brown complexions, black short hair, a form of countenance which in Europe would be called regular, and a nose less flattened than that of the negro. The women, as in the whole of Africa, are immoderately fond of dancing. According to Hornemann, all the inhabitants are Mahometans; according to others, there are also some pagans among them, who live in a good understanding with the Mussulmen.‡ The Fezzanese intoxicate themselves with the juice of the date; in other respects they are very sober, which is partly the result of necessity. Hornemann says that a person who can afford to eat bread and meat daily is esteemed a man of great wealth. The houses of Fezzan are built of sun-dried bricks, made of calcareous and argillaceous earth. They are extremely low, and lighted only by the door. In this country young persons are often mutilated and transformed into eunuchs.

Government. Inhabitants.

The Tibbos, a Berber nation, occupy the almost desert countries to the south-east of Fezzan, and from these extend eastward along the southern boundary of Harood-jeh, and the desert of Audjelah, as far as the vast sandy desert of Levata, by which Egypt is hemmed in on the west. This desert is the eastern limit of the Tibbos. The space on the south, lying between the Tibbos and the kingdom of Bornoo, is in the possession of the wandering

Tibbos.

* Abderrhaman Aga, Tripolitan Ambassador, Account given to Mr. Niebuhr in the New German Museum, III. p. 992.

† Proceedings of the African Association, I.

‡ Nouv. Mus. Allem. p. 993.

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Arabs, some of whose tribes live in caverns or grottos during the intense heats. Berdoa, an oasis mentioned by Leo, is perhaps identical with Boorgon, the capital of the Tibbos.

TRIPOLI.

The state of TRIPOLI, properly so called, extends on the north of Fezzan between the great and the little *Syrtæ*; that is, between the Gulf of Sidra and that of Gabes.

Climate and productions.

Here the climate is extremely unpleasant; the heat of the day and the coldness of the night being equally insupportable. From the month of May till the end of October no rain falls. Vegetation is more abundant in winter than in summer. The soil is tolerably fertile, producing dates, oranges, citrons, figs, almonds, and many other fruits. In winter there is abundance of all sorts of pulse, cabbages, turnips, and onions: in summer cucumbers and melons. Two days' journey south from Tripoli there is on Mount Garean a great plantation of saffron.—Lions and panthers are rarely seen; the jackals and hedgehogs are numerous. Much inconvenience is created by serpents and scorpions.*

Towns.

The comparative geography of the towns is involved in an obscurity which it is not in our power to dissipate.—There were three conspicuous towns in the Syrtic region; and in the fifth century this region received the name of Tripoli, which means "the country of the three cities;" but, in order to determine what these towns were, and what modern localities correspond to them, would require a long and not very amusing discussion. It seems to be certain, that during the first invasions of the Arabians, the city of

Antiquity of Tripoli.

Sabrata, apparently the capital of the province, had in common language received the name of Tripolis. It is still called Sabart, and "Old Tripoli." Its inhabitants took refuge in the place now called New Tripoli. This city may have been called Neapolis by the Byzantine au-

* Rothmann's Letters on Tripoli, in Schlætzer's Political Correspondence Vol. IX. No. VI. (in German.)

thors, but it was certainly different from that which Pliny and the rest of the ancients designated under that name. Was it identical with Occa? This has been denied without decisive evidence. It is at least an ancient city, for it has a triumphal arch, dedicated, as appears by the remains of the inscription, to Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, surnamed the philosopher, and to his imperial colleague, Lucius Verus.* After being taken from the Arabs by Roger of Sicily, and occupied by the troops of Charles V. and by the Knights of Malta, it always returned into the hands of the Mussulmans; but industry and trade have been much injured by these revolutions. Some stuffs are manufactured here. The harbour opens in a semicircular form, and is feebly protected by old fortifications.

Different towns.

To the east of the capital is Lebida, the ancient *Leptis magna*, with the remains of a temple, a triumphal arch, and an aqueduct;† also Mesurate, or Mezrata, the residence of a Bey. To the west we find Arzori, of sufficient importance in the fifth century to give its name to the province which was called *Arzugum Regio;* and the island of the Lotophagi, now called Zerbi. The small towns on the borders of the two Syrtæ, obscure in modern, as they were in ancient geography, seem to disappear with a rapidity like that of the shifting sand hills by which they are surrounded. The populous villages of Mount Garean are partly composed of grottos cut in the rocks. The tombs are sometimes over the dwellings of the living.‡

Government. Navy.

The State of Tripoli, possessing an extensive territory, but depopulated, full of barren districts, and a prey to anarchy, is the weakest of the Barbary States. The hereditary prince, or pasha, who reigns here, does not annex to his name the title of *Dey*, but only that of Bey. He is more dependent on the Sublime Porte than the princes of

* Picturesque Travels in Caramania, &c. from the cabinet of Sir Robert Ainslie. London, 1809.

† Stromberg's Remarks on the Trade of Tripoli, (in Swedish).

‡ Rothmann, Lettres sur Tripoli.

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Tunis and Algiers. He does not maintain regular troops, and his navy consists of some xebecs and armed polacres. The Danish frigate the Naiad, of 40 guns, commanded by Captain Sten-bille, was perfidiously inveigled into the harbour of Tripoli, where it was attacked by the whole Tripolitan navy. The frigate drove off all the xebecs and polacres, and made the pasha tremble in his palace, so that he offered more moderate conditions than he usually exacts.

Tripoli exports the wool of Barca, gold dust, ostrich feathers, slaves brought from the interior of Africa, senna, wax, and morocco leather. Caravans annually arrive here from Fezzan, Morocco, and Tombuctoo.

KINGDOM OF TUNIS.

To the west of Tripoli is the kingdom of TUNIS, the ancient *Africa Propria*, and the seat of the Carthaginian power. In the middle age, the State of Tripoli was subject to Tunis, of which Barbyrossa took possession in 1533. At the present day, the Tunisians, more civilized than the Algerines, are their inferiors in power, and have some difficulty to support their independence. The State contains four or five millions of inhabitants. The Moors, who are the agriculturists and merchants, are less numerous than the nomade Arabs. The Turkish and Mameluke soldiery are comprehended under the designation of *harefi*, and are now deprived of all influence. The princes, who are hereditary, are descended from a Greek renegado, and a Genoese female slave, but they are surrounded by an army of Moors. The sovereign is called Kamouda Bey, a person of extraordinary vigour of character, and has now reigned nearly thirty years, without any attempt having been made to shake his authority. He is not the legitimate heir, yet lives on terms of intimacy with his cousins, who ought to have inherited the throne. He superintends all the departments of government, and extends the protection of the law to Christians and Jews. The regular army does not amount to 20,000 men, and the navy consists of a few vessels armed for giving chace. Addicted

Government.

to agriculture, and other banches of industry, the Tunisians are less given to piracy than the other people of Barbary. The State revenues may amount to a million Sterling.*

Climate.

The heat becomes insupportable in July and August, when the south wind brings the heated air from the interior of Africa. Some branches of the Atlas contain elevated and temperate regions. A fertile plain lies along the river Mejerda, the *Bagradas* of the ancients. Among its minerals are found alabaster, crystal, clay, plumbago, iron, and lead. The cattle are small and delicate. The horses are a degenerate breed. The sheep of Zaara, which are bred here, are as large as deer. Here are lions, panthers, hyænas, jackals, and other ferocious animals.

Productions.

The southern part is sandy, rather level, barren, and dried up by the solar heat. It contains a large shallow lake called Loodeah,† which is the *Palus Tritonis* of the ancients. The country along the sea shore is rich in olives, and contains many towns and populous villages. But the western part is full of mountains and hills, watered by numerous rivulets, with highly fertile banks, yielding the finest and most abundant crops. Even the Mejerda is not navigable in summer. The generality of the soil is impregnated with sea salt and nitre, and salt springs are more plenty than fresh ones.

City of Tunis.

The city of Tunis is one of the first in Africa. It has a harbour, with good fortifications. The only fresh water to be had is rain water. This city has manufactures of velvets, silks, cloths, and red bonnets, which are worn by the people. The chief exports consist of woollen stuffs, red bonnets, gold dust, lead, oils, and morocco leather. The most active part of the trade is carried on with France. In no part of Barbary are the Moors so tolerant and so courteous as here. The commercial spirit of an-

* Chateaubriand, Mémoire sur Tunis, dans l'Itineraire à Jerusalem. MacGill's Account of Tunis. London, 1811, p. 24—39, &c.

† Bruns, Afrika, VI. p. 329.

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Ruins of Carthage.

cient Carthage seems to hover over this locality, so long the focus of African civilization and power. The ruins of that ancient city are to the north-west of Tunis. Her harbours, once the asylum of so many formidable fleets, seem partly filled up by the falling in of the ground. In the south-east part are seen some remains of the moles by which they were bounded.* A noble aqueduct is still to be seen, a monument of the Roman power, under which the second Carthage flourished. The emperor Charles V. caused a drawing to be made of it, and the design was arranged by the celebrated Titian, to serve as a model for some tapestry to be executed for the Austrian court.†

Among the modern places we may mention Barda, the Tunisian Versailles, being the palace in which the Bey resides. The Goletta, a well appointed fortress, commands the roadstead of Tunis, and the entrance of a large pool, which is scarcely navigable for boats. Biserta, a fortified town, is situated on a lagoon, which is exceedingly well stocked with fish, and might be formed into a magnificent harbour.

Porto-Farina, situated to the north-west on the Mediterranean, has an excellent harbour, which has become foul with rubbish. The ancient Utica, where the younger Cato died a voluntary death, was near this place. Sooza, a trading town, built on a rock, has a castle, and a good harbour on the Mediterranean. Hamamet, Sfakes, and Gabes, have also harbours or roadsteads. In the interior we notice Kairooan, a town founded by the Arabians, and for some centuries the capital of Africa. The Mussulmans boast of its principal mosque, supported, as they say, by 500 granitic columns. Foser, on Lake Loodeah, is a great mart for wool.

State of Gadames.

The Bey of Tunis has sometimes disputed with the

* Chateaubriand, Itineraire, III. p. 186, &c. Jackson, Memoir on the Ruins of Carthage.

† Fischer d'Erlach, Architecture Historique, liv. II. Planche II. Vienne, 1721.

Bey of Tripoli the sovereignty of the small state of Gadames, which is at a distance in the interior, to the south of the lesser Syrtæ. Gadames had once a flourishing trade, which has declined since the caravans, in going from Tripoli to Tombuctoo, have stopped at Agadez, instead of this place. All the caravans from the interior bring slaves, ostrich feathers, ivory, amber, senna leaves, and gold dust. Gadames is called by a modern author Gdamsia.*

State of Algiers.

Proceeding westward, we enter the state of ALGIERS. This kingdom, watered by the Shellif and the Wadi-Jidi, is crossed in its southern part by the chains of the Atlas, called Lowat and Ammer. We have described these chains, and mentioned the mountain of Jurjura, one of the highest in Barbary. This chain is about twenty-two miles long from north-east to south-west: the chains of Wannoogah and of Auress form the continuation of it to the east. Full of rocks and precipices, they are covered with snow for more than nine months, perhaps the whole year.

Soil and productions.

According to M. Desfontaines,† the territory of Algiers, with the exception of the parts bordering on the desert, is less sandy and more fertile than that of Tunis. He found the climate more temperate, the mountains higher and more numerous, the rains more plentiful, the springs and streams more frequent, the vegetation more active and more diversified. The mountains arrest the clouds that come from the north, and condense them by means of the snows which cover their summits, so that they fall down in rain. There are many rivers and salt springs, and near the lake called Marks there is a mountain of rock salt. Several mineral springs are known. Earthquakes are frequent but not disastrous. There is a sandy plain which the Moors call Shott or Shatt, which is sometimes inundated, and receives five small rivers.

* Flora Atlantica, preface, p. 2.

† Idem, ibid.

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Boundaries. Divisions.

According to Mr. Shaw, the boundary of this state, with that of Morocco, is Mount Trara, which lies north and south, forming with its northern extremity Cape Hone, called by the inhabitants Hunein or Mellack: others extend it to the little river of Mulloia or Malva. It is a matter of little moment, as the country which lies between these two states is the desert of Angara, a sandy country, which appears to be still, as in the time of Leo Africanus, the abode of lions, ostriches, and Arabian robbers, who plunder every defenceless traveller. On the south the state of Algiers extends no farther than the river Wadi-Jiddi. It is divided into four provinces, Mascara in the west; the province of Algiers; Titeri, to the south of it; and Constantine, which is the most easterly, and conterminous with Tunis.

The country of Zab, in the south, inhabited by Arabs or nomadic Berbers, yields a very doubtful obedience to the authority of Algiers, the southern limits of which are uncertain, and lost in the desert.

City of Algiers.

The city of Algiers, which contains a population of 80,000 souls, rises in the form of an amphitheatre at the extremity of a fortified anchoring ground, which however is not safe in a north wind. The numerous and handsome country seats scattered over an amphitheatre of hills, among groves of olive, citron, and banana trees, present a rural and peaceful landscape, very dissimilar in character to a nation of pirates.* In the province of Algiers the city of Shersel, the ancient Cesarea, exhibits its ruins at the foot of a mountain covered with orchards. On the coast of the province of Mascara, we find Mostagan, a large town; Arseoo, a harbour from which grain is exported; and Oran, a fortress long occupied by the Spaniards, who restored it to the Algerines, reserving to themselves the fort of Marsal-kibir, so situated as to command a large and good anchorage. Telemsen is always the chief city of the interior, although the governing bey has

Towns of the province of Mascara.

* Hebenstreit, dans Bernouilli, Collect. des Voyages, IX. p. 328.

established his residence at Mascara, a fortified place. At Telemsen there are some woollen manufactures. Among the nomade tribes of this province, the Beni-Ammer had in a great measure adopted the language and manners of the Spaniards of Oran.—In the province of Titeri is the town of Bleda, occupying a cheerful situation. It contains some independent tribes.—The province of Constantine, governed by a very powerful bey, almost forms an independent state. On the coast we have the town of Boogia, with a good harbour, where the mountaineers sell ship timber, figs, and oil; Coolloo, which exports cow-hides; Bona, in a country so rich in olives, lemons, jujubes, figs, and other fruit, that they are suffered to rot on the trees; and, lastly, La Calle, lately the station of a French commercial company, the chief object of which was the coral fishery. The interior contains the towns of Tubnah, Messila, Medrashem, with the tomb of Syphax. There is also Tifseh, a place fortified to cover the frontier on the side of Tunis, and the capital Constantine, containing nearly 100,000 souls, and adorned with many fine remains of Roman architecture. A short way from this city, the petrifying springs, called the enchanted baths, form small pyramids by the deposition of calcareous earth with which their waters are impregnated. The Coocos and Beni-Abbes, in the vicinity of Boogia; the Henneishas, on the Tunisian frontier, and on the banks of the Mejerda, are powerful tribes of Kabyls, who yield to the Bey of Constantine an obedience equally precarious with that which he yields to the Dey of Algiers. In the mountains of Auress, the romantic traveller, Mr. Bruce, says he met with a tribe distinguished by a white complexion and red hair, whom he believed to be a remnant of the Vandals.* They mark their foreheads with a Greek cross.

Of Constantine.

The country of Zab, watered by the river El-Djidid, which loses itself in a marsh, supports with much difficulty its inhabitants, who are called Biscaris. It is a desert, con-

* Bruce's Travels.

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taining some scattered groves of date trees. The countries of Wadreag and Guargala in the south, and of Sobair and Tegorarin in the west, seem to belong to independent Berbers.

Inhabitants.

In Algiers there are about 14, or 16,000 Turks. The remainder of the population consists of Coloris, or Kulogloos, Jews, Moors, Arabian shepherds, negro slaves, and Christians, part of whom, till lately, were in a state of slavery, part free. The Coloris, or Kulogloos, are the posterity of Turks, by Moorish and negro women. They hold a middle rank between the Moors and Turks. They occupy some offices, but not the highest; many of them are very rich. They differ little from the Turks in figure, and a mutual jealousy subsists between these two classes. The government is both despotic and aristocratic. The army, which is composed of Turks, chooses the Dey, or Sovereign, whose arbitrary power seems to be mitigated by the principal officers composing the Divan, the members of which are chosen from the oldest warriors. The army consists of about 6500 Turks; but during war, and when the Coloris are armed, the city of Algiers can send 16,000 men into the field. The revenues raised in the three provinces, from taxes on the Jews and Christians of Algiers, from the government monopoly of grain, the sale and ransom of prisoners, and confiscations, amount to a million and nine thousand Algerine piastres. The sciences and arts here are in a most deplorable state. The Algerines are even indifferently skilled in ship-building, and their compass is only marked with eight points. The chase is with them an interesting occupation. In autumn, and in winter, fifty or sixty persons join together to hunt the lion, the leopard, and other ferocious animals.

EMPIRE OF MOROCCO.

The empire of MOROCCO is a remnant of the great African monarchies, founded by the Arabs. The dynasty of the Aglabites, whose capital at one time was Kaironan, and more lately Tunis, and that of the Edrisites, which resided at Fez, were subjugated by the Fatimites, who af-

terwards being occupied with the conquests of Egypt, allowed their western possessions to be usurped by the Zeïrites, who were succeeded by the Hamadians and the Abuhafsians in the provinces of Tunis and Constantine. But in the western extremity, a prince of the Lemtunaas, a tribe belonging to the Great Desert, at present unknown, chose for the reformer of his people, their legislator and high priest, Abdallah-Ben-Iasin, an extraordinary person, who lived on water, game, and fish, but who married and divorced many women every month. This artful fanatic created a sect marked in the first instance by furious zeal, and always extremely ambitious and enterprising, called the Almoravides, or more properly Morabeth. It issued from the desert like a fiery hurricane, threatening by turns Africa and Europe. The supreme head of these conquering zealots took the title of *Emir-al-Mumenim*, or Prince of the Faithful. In 1052, Abutasfin built the city of Morocco, or Merakash. Joosooph invaded and subjugated the finest part of Spain. At the same time the religious and political rule of the Morabeths extended over Algiers, the Great Desert, Tombuctoo, and other towns of Soodan; but new sectaries of a more austere character, the Mooahedes or Almohads, that is, the Unitarians, conquered in 1146 the great empire of Mogreb, or the west. Though less fortunate in Spain, they extended their power in Africa as far as Tripoli. Their princes took the title of Emir-al-Mumenim, and even that of Caliph. After the lapse of a century, intestine discords laid the Almohads open to the successful attacks of several rivals, among whom were the Merinites, who took possession of the kingdom of Fez and Morocco. This dynasty, more bent on retaining than on extending its possessions, made no effort to re-establish the great empire of Mogreb. In 1547, a Sherif, or descendant of Mahomet, put a period to the power of the Merinites. His posterity still reigns, after having weathered frequent revolutions. The sovereigns of Morocco conjoin the title of Sheriff with that of Sultan.

The Almoravides.

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Boundaries.

The State of which we have now traced the origin, still embraces a territory of 500, or 550 miles in length, and 420 in breadth, almost as large as Spain, even when we confine ourselves to the cultivated parts of the provinces of Segelmesias, Tafilet, and Darah, situated near Mount Atlas. All travellers join in praising the fertility of the kingdoms of Fez and Morocco, the one of which is situated to the north and the other to the west of the Atlas. This

Productions.

fertility, however, seems to be confined to those parts in which sufficient supplies of water co-operate with the goodness of the soil, and the heat of the climate. Though the inhabitants almost entirely neglect cultivation, fruit and grain are produced, not only in quantities sufficient for the wants of the people, but also for exportation. Morocco supplies a part of Spain with these necessaries of life. The principal grain is wheat. Barley is also abundant. It comes into ear in the month of March. Oats grow spontaneously. The olive in its best state, the citron, the orange, and the cotton tree, cover the hills. In the sandy plains, the Moors, by dint of irrigation, rear a variety of pulse, melons, and cucumbers. Many varieties of the vine succeed in the northern provinces. The forests are full of oaks, with sweet acorns, cork trees, cedars, arbutuses and gum trees. The minerals are neglected; copper, tin, and antimony are found; but they are only worked superficially.* The climate, excepting for three months in summer, is very pleasant, but the dreadful hot wind of the desert prevails for fifteen days, or three weeks, before the rainy season, which commences in September. At this time the rains are not constant. Much snow falls in the valleys of Mount Atlas.

Rivers.

The rivers are shallow, and generally have a bar at their mouth, which prevents the entrance of large vessels. The largest rivers are the Mulluia which flows into the Mediterranean; the Subu; the Morbeia, or Ommirabée, and the Tensif which fall into the Atlantic.

* Jackson's Account of Marocco. Hœst's Relation du Maroc.

Cities of the kingdom of Fez

Without bewildering ourselves in the labyrinth of the topography of the provinces, we shall take notice of the principal cities. Fez, the capital of the kingdom of that name, is conspicuous among the African cities for its ancient literary renown. The passion for study, however, is now extinct. It has preserved some manufactures of silk, wool, and red morocco; it has an active trade, and is said to contain a population of 30, or according to others, 60,000 souls. Mequinez, in the plain to the west of Fez, has, on account of its salubrious climate, been frequently selected as a place of residence for the Sultan. On the coast of the Mediterranean, the fortresses of Melilla, of Pennon-de-Velez, and of Ceuta, possessions of little use to Spain, are memorials of the attempts which the Christians have made to invade, in their turn, the territories of Islamism. In Tetuan, a town of 20,000 souls, the houses are generally two stories high, and good, but the streets are extremely narrow and gloomy. Their mode of building is to make a large wooden case for the wall, or for a part of it, into which they put the mortar, and when it is dry the case is removed. The roofs are flat, and the women, who live in the higher apartments, walk along them in paying their mutual visits. The women are so handsome, and at the same time so susceptible, that Mussulman jealousy has been obliged to prohibit Europeans from settling in it.* Tangier, or Tandja, a town pleasantly situated on the Straits, has become the residence of most of the European consuls. Passing Cape Spartle, we find on the shore of the Atlantic Ocean, the large town of Larash, or El-Araish, at the mouth of the river Luccas, which here forms a port: Mamera on the south side of a number of large lakes, and Saleh, formerly a sort of piratical republic, now a commercial town, the residence of the French consul, and separated by the river Buragrag from the town of Rabat, or New Saleh. At Azamor on the Morbeya, the kingdom of Fez ends, and that of Morocco begins.

* Agrell, Lettres sur le Maroc.

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Towns of the kingdom of Morocco.

The capital of this kingdom, and the ordinary residence of the Sultan, is properly called Merakash. It contains, according to the best authorities, from 20, to 30,000 inhabitants, silk, paper, and red morocco manufactures, large magazines of grain, built under the direction of a Danish architect,* and numerous mosques, one of which had minarets, surmounted with four golden globes, which were said to be enchanted, but which a Sheriff had courage enough to order to be removed.† On the coast we find Mazagan, a Portuguese fortress, which was unsuccessfully besieged by 200,000 Moors.—Valadia, the best situation for a harbour on this coast, where rapid currents and violent squalls, render a place of shelter a most valuable object to the seaman:—Safi, or Asafi, a small town at the foot of Mount Atlas:—Mogadore, the great emporium of the whole empire, regularly built, on plans given by a French engineer, well fortified, and provided with a harbour, which, however, like all the rest on this coast, is filled with sand.—Next comes Agadir; and lastly, Santa Cruz, the most southerly port of Morocco, situated in the province of Sus, the capital of which is Tarodant, a large inland town, and a military station for resisting the depredations of the nomades.

Towns to the south of the Atlas.

The cities of Tafilet, and Segelmessa on the south-east of Mount Atlas, though now little known, were once very flourishing places. The caravans bound to Soodan and Egypt, seem still to join at the latter of these places, or at least both pass through it. According to Jackson, Tafilet possesses excellent woollen manufactures.

Population of Morocco

The writer now mentioned, who officiated as British consul at Mogadore, has given an opinion on the population of Morocco, very different from what is entertained by the greater part of travellers, who represent this country as extremely depopulated, containing not more than five or six

* Høst, p. 76—78, &c.

† Saint-Olen, quoted by Bruyzen La Martinière, under the article *Maroc*.

millions of inhabitants.* This author says he has collected minute information on the subject; but he does not always mention the precise sources from which it is derived. He professes to have seen the imperial registers, in which the names of all taxed persons are inscribed; but he does not say how these registers are kept, and what evidence we have of their correctness. The following are the numbers which he assigns:

| | Inhabitants. |
|---|---|
| Cities and towns of the Empire . . . . . | 936,000 |
| Kingdom of Morocco and Fez, to the west of Mount Atlas | 10,300,000 |
| Nomade tribes on the north of the Atlas . . . . . | 3,000,000 |
| Tafilet, a kingdom to the east of the Atlas . . . . . | 650,000 |
| Total population of the empire . . . . . | 14,886,000 |

As the whole surface of the Morocco states is 359,380 square miles,† the population would average forty-two inhabitants to the square mile; but it consists of two very different countries;—that which lies to the west and the north of the Atlas, and that which lies to the east and the south. As the latter, which gradually passes into the desert, would only contain 700,000 persons on a surface of 134,225 square miles, making five or six to each square mile, the maritime part, or the kingdom of Fez and Morocco, would contain, on a surface of 201,544 square miles, more than fourteen millions of inhabitants, which would make the relative population amount to seventy per square mile; a proportion perhaps equal to what exists in Spain or Turkey, and which it is not easy to admit without further inquiring into a country so much exposed to intestine troubles, so ill governed, and so destitute of the means of civilization. Mr. Jackson makes the city of Morocco to contain 270,000 inhabitants, and Fez 380,000,—assertions too extravagant to require discussion. Travellers of excellent character give the first of these cities no more than

* Chenier, Lemprière, &c. &c. See Bruns, Afrika, VI. p. 60.

† Gatterer's Geography, p. 123, (German.)

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30,000, and the other 70,000, and yet seem to think it possible that they exaggerate them.*

Government.

The subjects of this empire are slaves to an absolute despot, and strangers to the benefits of fixed laws, their only rule being the will of the emperor. Wherever this prince fixes his residence he distributes justice in person; for this purpose he generally holds a court twice, and sometimes four times in the week, in a hall of audience called M'shoire.† Here all complaints are addressed to him; every person has access; the emperor hears each individual, foreigners or natives, man or woman, rich or poor. Distinctions of rank have no influence, every person being entitled without hindrance or embarrassment, to approach the common sovereign. Sentence is promptly pronounced, always with absolute and ultimate decision, and for the most part with justice.

Administration.

With the exception of these imperial audiences, the administration under this government is a tissue of disorder, rapine, and violence. The governors of provinces have the title of *kalif*, or lieutenant, that of *pasha*, or of *kaid*;‡ and combine the executive with the judicial power. They only remit to the judges some complicated causes. In some of the towns, such as Fez, there are *kadis*, or independent judges, who are invested with great powers. Oppressed and harassed by the sovereign and the courtiers, all these governors and judges oppress the people in their turn.

Civil condition.

The lowest officer pillages legally in his master's name. The wealth thus acquired falls in the end into the coffers of the sultan, who, under some pretext or other, causes those who have amassed treasures to be dismissed from office, accused, and condemned. The sovereign can deprive a subject of every thing belonging to him except what is strictly necessary to save him from starvation. The confiscated sums are said to pass into the common treasure of the Mus-

* Hœst, p. 78 and 84.

† Chenier writes it Meschouar; Hœst, Moschonar.

‡ Hœst, p. 184. Jackson.

sulmans; this is all the account of them that is given. The consequences of such a system may be easily conceived. The people, suspicious, cruel, and perfidious, respect no sort of obligations. Their universal aim is to pillage one another; no confidence, no social tie exists among them, and scarcely even any momentary feelings of affection. The father dreads the son and the son detests the father.

Religions.

The different religions which maintain the unity of God are tolerated. There are Roman Catholic monasteries at Morocco, at Mogadore, at Mequinez, and Tangier; but the Romish monks at Morocco and at Mequinez are closely watched and exposed to vexations.* The Jews, who are exceedingly numerous, and extend even among the valleys of the Atlas, are treated with the most revolting barbarity.

Situation of the Jews.

Their situation, civil and moral, in this country, is a most singular phenomenon. On the one hand, their industry, their address, and their intelligence, make them masters of all the trade and manufactures. They direct the royal coinage; they levy the duties on exports and imports; and officiate as interpreters and men of business.† On the other hand, they experience the most odious vexations and the most dreadful usage. They are prohibited from writing in Arabic, or even learning the characters, because for them to read the Koran would be a profanation.‡ Their women are prohibited from wearing any green article of clothing, and are only allowed to veil one half of the face. A Moor enters the Jewish synagogues without ceremony, and even abuses and insults the rabbins. In passing a mosque, the Jews must uncover their feet, and remove their slippers to a respectful distance. They dare not be seen on horseback, or sit cross-legged before Moors of a certain rank. They are often assailed by the lowest blackguards in the public walks, who cover them over with mud, spit in their faces, or knock them down; they are obliged to ask

* Hœst, p. 161. Lemprière, p. 108.

† Hœst, Relat. p. 144. Lemprière, p. 102. 165.

‡ Agrell, p. 263. Hœst, p. 145.

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pardon, and call the person *sidi*, or 'sir,' who, the moment before, most outrageously maltreated them.* Should a Jew, under any provocation, raise his hand to strike a Moor, he runs the risk of being capitally condemned. When employed to work for the court, the Jews receive no pay, and think themselves happy if they are not beaten. One prince, *Ishem*, ordered a dress from a Jewish tailor; the dress when it came did not exactly fit him; the prince proposed to kill the Jew on the spot; the governor of the city interceded for him, and he got off with having his beard pulled out hair by hair.† At Tangier, an order of government once appeared in the middle of winter, that every Jew should go bare-footed, under the penalty of being *hung up by the feet*. To crown all, they are frequently condemned in Morocco to be thrown, like Daniel, into a den of lions; but, as the keepers of the lions are themselves Jews, it is rarely that any deadly consequences ensue. The keepers use the precaution to feed the lions abundantly, and not to leave their countrymen exposed longer to them than a single night.‡

Pride of the Moors.

The Moors entertain the loftiest ideas of themselves and their country. These half-naked slaves style the Europeans *agein*, or barbarians. They are not altogether destitute of virtues. A Moor never abandons himself to despair; neither sufferings nor losses can extort from him a single murmur; to every event he submits as decreed by the will of God; and habitually hopes for better times.

Singular points of etiquette.

The Moors admit of no distinction founded on birth; nothing except public office confers rank. Among the points of etiquette which prevail at the court of the princes of Morocco, a very singular one is quoted by the author whom we follow. The word *death* is never uttered in presence of the sultan. When it is unavoidable to mention to his sovereign the death of any person, it is expressed by such words as, "He has fulfilled his destiny," on which the mo-

* Hœst, p. 143. 209.

† Agrell. p. 89.

‡ Hœst, p. 290.

narch gravely remarks, "God be merciful to him." Another point of whimsical superstition is, that the numbers *five* and *fifteen* must not be mentioned in the presence of the prince.*

Revenues.

Mr. Hœst estimates the revenues at a million of piastres, the chief sources of which are the customs and the land tithes. The sultan generally amasses treasure. The army, composed of 24,000 negroes and 12,000 Moors, is ignorant of discipline and manœuvring. The navy consists entirely of corsairs, which are sometimes fifty in number. It is only by the position of their country that these ignorant and cowardly seamen are enabled to inflict inconvenience on Europeans.

Export trade.

Raw produce is all that a country so far behind in civilization can export. The following is a list of its exports, according to the concurring accounts of travellers: wool, wax, (5000 quintals,) ox-hides, morocco-leather, ivory, ostrich feathers, poultry, and eggs, (to the amount of two millions of francs, or £83,333, by the ports of Larache and Tangier alone, according to Lemprière,) cattle for Portugal, mules for the West Indies, gum-arabic of indifferent quality, crude copper, almonds, oil *d'argane*, used in the manufacture of Marseilles soap; various fruits, and wheat, when the exportation of it is allowed. The imports are cloths, pottery, Biscayan iron, spiceries, and tea; also ship-timber, which is not to be had on the coast, though probably it would be found on Mount Atlas if pains were taken to inquire for it. In 1804 the exports from the harbour of Mogadore did not exceed £128,000 Sterling, duties included, and the imports amounted to £150,000. The most active part of the trade of the Moroccans seems to be that which they carry on with Tombuctoo, by means of a caravan which goes from Akka in the province of Darah.

Imports.

Now that we have taken our survey of the whole of Barbary, from the confines of Egypt to the shores of the At-

* Hœst, p. 222. Agrell, p. 296.

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Bildulgerid.

lantic Ocean, the old routine of geographers should bring us to Bildulgerid; but there is in reality no such geographical division. The name of *Belad-el-Djerid*, or "the Land of Dates," falls under the same description with those of *Belad-el-Tolfol*, "the Pepper Country," and *Belad-el-Tibr*, "the Land of Gold." Such appellations cannot apply to a country of definite limits. The Arabs gave the name of the "Land of Dates" to all the countries situated on the southern declivity of the Atlas, as far as the Great Desert. This stripe extends from the Atlantic Ocean to Egypt. It includes Darah, Tafilet, Sedjelmessa, Tegorarin, Zab, Guargala, the country of Totser, Gadamis, Fezzan, Aujelah, and Sivah.* All these districts have been already mentioned in their proper places: the country of Totser, which belongs to Tunis, and to which Shaw and some others give the special name of Delad-el-Djerid, is properly the Kastiliah of the Arabian geographers.† Other travellers, with rather less impropriety, give the name of Bildulgerid to the province of Darah in the south part of Morocco.

The Great Desert, called in Arabic Zahara, extends, in the ordinary acceptation of the term, from Egypt and Nubia to the Atlantic Ocean, and from the foot of Mount Atlas to the banks of the Niger. But, as Fezzan and Agadez, at least according to the latest notions, separate the deserts of Bilma and of Berdoa from the rest of the Zahara, we shall not at this place take them under our view. The great desert of the north-west of Africa seems to be a table-land little raised above the level of the sea, covered with moving sands, and here and there containing some rocky heights and some valleys, where the water collects and nourishes some thorny shrubs, ferns, and grass.‡ The

* Leo Africanus, p. 623, edit. Elz.

† Abulfeda, Africa, p. 25. Timimi, quoted in Edrisi, Hartmann's edit. p. 257. Paulus, Memorabil. III. p. 239.

‡ Marmol, Afrique, III. p. 41. Leo, Elzevir's edit. p. 67.

mountains along the shore of the Atlantic Ocean are in no continued chain, but only in detached peaks. Towards the interior they lose themselves in a plain covered with white and sharp pebbles. The sand hills, being frequently moved by the wind, lie in undulating lines like the surface of an agitated sea. At Tegazza, and some other places, a sal-gem whiter than the purest marble, lies in extensive strata under a bed of rock.* No other mineral substance belonging to this desert is mentioned by authors; but, on its southern margin, Golberry found masses of native iron, his confused description of which excites our curiosity without giving any satisfactory information. For a great part of the year the dry and heated air has the appearance of a reddish vapour, and the horizon looks like the fire of a series of volcanoes.† The rain, which falls from July to October,‡ does not extend its precarious and momentary blessings to all the districts. An aromatic plant resembling thyme, the same which bears the grains of Zahara, acacias, and other thorny shrubs, nettles, and brambles, constitute the ordinary vegetation of the desert. It is rarely that a grove of date trees, or other palms, is to be seen. The forests of gum trees, (the *Mimosa Senegal* of Linnæus) situated on the extreme border of the desert, seem to be detachments derived from the vegetation of Senegambia. Some monkeys, and some gazelles, support themselves on this scanty vegetation. The ostrich also lives here in numerous flocks, feeding on lizards and snails, together with some coarse plants, such as *apocynums*.§ Lions, panthers, and serpents, sometimes of enormous dimensions, add to the horrors of these frightful solitudes. Ravens, and other birds, dispute with the Moorish dogs the dead bodies of men and quadrupeds. These animals live here almost without drinking. The flocks consist of camels, goats, and

Soil and minerals.

Climate.

Vegetation.

Animals.

* Leon, p. 633.

† Brisson, Voyage, p. 24. 35, 36. (German edit.)

‡ Follie, Voyage, p. 63, tr. allum. Brisson, p. 45. 161.

§ Cadamosto in Sprengel, Beytræge, XI. p. 112. Shaw, p. 453. Poiret, I. p. 280.

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sheep. The horses, which are very rare, sometimes receive milk to allay their thirst, for want of water.*

The coast.

The coast of Zahara contains some harbours and road-steads. Those of Rio-do-Ouro, and of St. Cyprian, are formed by large creeks, resembling the mouth of rivers. The Gulf of Ardum, and the Portendic road, have often been visited by Europeans. On the same line are Cape Bojadore, the terror of the navigators of the middle age, and, down to 1538, the fatal limit of all sea voyages in this direction, and Cape Blanco, which, according to the most probable opinion, was the limit of the discoveries of the Carthaginians.

Tribes to the north of Cape Blanco.

The people called Mooselmins, live to the north of Cape Bojadore. Their territories are intermediate between Morocco and the desert. These people are composed of a mixture of the descendants of Arabs and fugitive Moors from Morocco. Their lands are not destitute of fertility, and the limits between them and the desert are indicated by a series of lofty pillars. Their life is intermediate between the pastoral and the agricultural state. Their corn is, in harvest, deposited in large holes dug in the sand, in which the different individuals have shares proportioned to the number of labourers whom they have employed. They remain by their fields in seed-time and harvest, but wander in all directions with their cattle during the rest of the year, taking with them only necessary articles, and returning to their stores from time to time for a supply. The more opulent among them, and the artizans, reside in towns. The former are proprietors of cattle, which are abroad in the country under the care of their slaves. Gratuitous hospitality is habitually practised in the country, but not in the towns. Their government is republican, and their chiefs elected annually. Their country is populous, though their numbers are in some measure kept down by frequent warfare with the emperor of Morocco. These people are better clothed and more prosperous than the Moroccans,

* Brisson, p. 161. Follie, p. 63. Compare with Leo, p. 48.

They are almost continually on horseback. They excel in breaking and managing their horses, which are the best in the world, and are skilful riders. The Mongearts live between Cape Bojadore and Cape Blanco. On the heights, along this dangerous coast, they generally make signals to the ships at sea, in order to allure them to their inevitable ruin. These ferocious Africans instantly take possession both of the goods and crews. The Wadelims and the Labdessebas, who live near Cape Blanco, are described as monsters of cruelty, by a Frenchman who had the misfortune to suffer shipwreck on their coasts. The fate of the prisoners is truly lamentable. The Moors, in conveying them to the heart of the desert, make them walk, like themselves, fifty miles per day, giving them in the evening only a little barley meal, mixed with water, the common food of these nomades. The soles of the feet in the European swell dreadfully from the heat of the burning sand, in which the Arab travels without inconvenience. The master soon perceives how ill qualified his slave is for the travels and toils of this sort of life, and therefore endeavours to get rid of him. After a succession of hard marches, he generally meets with one of the Jewish travellers who are settled at Wadi-Noon, and cross the desert with their merchandize. The Jew purchases the prisoner for a little tobacco, salt, and clothes. This person afterwards writes to the agent of the European nation to which the prisoner belongs, and endeavours to obtain for his liberty as high a ransom as he can.*

Fate of the captives.

The gum forests between Cape Blanco and the Senegal, are in the possession of three tribes, called Trarsas, Aulad-el-Hadgi, and Ebraquana. All the three are of Arabian origin, and speak their mother tongue: they are Mahometans, and live in camps, without any fixed houses.

Tribes to the south of Cape Blanco.

The territory of the Trarsas is bounded on the west by the ocean, and on the south by the Senegal. Their capital, if we can be allowed to use the term, is in an oasis, the

The Trarsas.

* Jackson's Account of Morocco. Brisson, and Follie.

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name of which is believed to be Hoden. To this place they seem to retire during rainy weather; but they anxiously conceal the place of their retreat, which they call their country. We are only permitted to know that these oases are situated between the 18th and the 22d degree of north latitude, and between the ocean and the 7th degree of longitude, (reckoning from the island of Ferro.) The territory of the Brachnas, or the Ebraquana, and of the Aulad-el-Hadgi, is bounded on the west by the Trarsas, on the south by the Senegal, on the east by Ludamar. On the north they have the same sort of boundaries as the rest.

Portendik, on the coast, is the harbour where the trade with the Trarsas is carried on. Podor, on the Senegal, is the resort of the most easterly tribes.

Manners of the Moors.

These Moors or Arabs, are in general a base and perfidious people, although individuals have been found among them distinguished for courage and other virtues. Cruel wherever they are possessed of power,—treacherous and faithless,—they are strangers to every sentiment of generosity or humanity. Their wild aspect corresponds to their barbarous manners. Even in their copper complexion, containing a mixture of red and black, there seems to be something that indicates badness of character.

Golberry, who has drawn this picture, saw their women in a more agreeable light, at least during youth. According to him, they are handsome at that happy age; their features are fine, mild, and regular; their colour inclines to a pale yellow, but fairer and clearer than that of the men. They live in tents; men, women, children, horses, camels, and other animals, being crowded promiscuously under the same cover. The camps, which they form on the banks of the river, are composed of the better sort of tribes. They live on millet, maize, dates, and gum; and their sobriety and abstemiousness are almost inconceivable. The greater part of their fruits are furnished by the oases: the date palms, above all, grow in the greatest abundance. They have cattle with humps on the back, and ex-

cellent horses, whose rapid pace equals the speed of the ostrich.

Our arts and trades are not altogether unknown to these barbarous people: they even practice some of them with skill. They have weavers who, with the simplest portable looms, make stuffs out of the hair of animals, especially the camel and the goat. They have even the secret of manufacturing morocco-leather. They know how to apply to purposes of utility the skins of lions, leopards, panthers, and hippopotami. They reduce lamb's skins to the thinness of paper, then dye them with different colours, and fashion them into ornaments. They form stirrups and bridle-bits of single pieces of metal, as well as sabres and poinards; incrust and damaskene the handles of the latter, and adorn the scabbards with plates of gold and silver. They have their itinerant goldsmiths and jewellers, who make bracelets, chains, gold-rings, filligrees, and arabesque ornaments, by which they compose, with no small skill and taste, pieces of ornamental dress for ladies and royal personages.

The caravan of Morocco.

Farther to the east, we know the tribes of the desert only by the Moroccan caravan, or *akkabah*, which travels every year to Tombuctoo. The akkabahs do not proceed in a straight line across the immense desert of Zahara, which would afford no practicable road, but turn sometimes westward, sometimes eastward, according to the position of the different oases. These verdant lands, scattered over this vast desert, serve as places of rest and refreshment to the men and animals. So violent is the burning wind, called the samoom or shoom, that the scorching heat often dries up the water contained in the leathern bottles which the camels carry for the use of the merchants and the drivers. There was a monument here which, in the time of Leo Africanus, attested the deplorable fate of a driver and a merchant, the one of whom sold his last cup of water to the other for ten drachms of gold. Both had perished. In 1805, an *akkabah* consisting of 2000 persons, and 1800 camels, not finding water at the usual resting-places, died of thirst, both men and animals. The vehemence of the

Dangers encountered.

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burning wind, which in these vast plains raises and rolls before it the waves of red sand, makes the desert so much to resemble the stormy sea, that the Arabs have given it the name of a dry sea, (*Bahar billa maia.*) Possessing some knowledge of the positions of the stars, they use the polar star for direction, and often prefer travelling during the clear nights of these climates, rather than brave during the day the intense heats of a burning sun.

Route of this caravan.

The Akkabahs of Morocco take about 130 days to cross the desert, including the time occupied in resting at the different oäses. Leaving the city of Fez, proceeding at a rate of three miles and a half per hour, and travelling seven hours each day, they arrive in six at Wadi-Noon, Akka, or Tatta; here they stop a month for the arrival of the other caravans which are to join them; sixteen more days are then occupied in travelling from *Akka* to Tarassa, where they rest fifteen days. They then set out for Tombuctoo, where they arrive on the sixth day, after a journey of 129 days, being fifty-four of travelling, and seventy-five of rest. Another caravan which leaves Wadi-Noon and Sola-Assa, crosses the desert between the black mountains of Cape Bojadore and Galata, goes to the western Tarassa (probably the country of the Trasarts,) where it stops to procure salt, and arrives at Tombuctoo after a journey of five or six months. This Akkabah goes as far as Jibbel-el-Bud, or the white mountains near Cape Blanco, and crosses the desert of Magaffra, to the district of Agadir, where it rests twenty days. These caravans obtain an escort from each tribe through whose territories they pass. Thus, in crossing those of Woled-Abuseed, they are accompanied by a great number of soldiers, and two sebayers or chiefs of clans, who, after conducting them to the territory of Woled-Deleim, receive their remuneration, and commit the akkabah into the hands of the chiefs of this district: these escort them to the territory of the tribe of Magaffra, where other guides convoy them to Tombuctoo. Sometimes a caravan bolder or more hurried than the rest,

attempts to cross the desert without an escort; but they seldom fail to repent of their temerity, by falling into the hands of the two tribes of Dekna and Emjot, which inhabit the northern frontiers of the desert.

Mode of living of the travellers.

Being subject to a religious code which forbids the use of inebriating liquors, the merchants of the caravans know no other drink than water; dates and barley meal serve them for food during a journey of many weeks across the desert. Their clothing is equally simple. Fortified by this frugality, and sustained by the prospect of returning to their homes, they sing as they trudge along, to shorten the long hours of travel. When they come near a few houses, or when their camels seem in danger of dropping down with fatigue, their songs acquire additional spirit and expression; their melody and sweetness restore animation to the toiling camels. At four in the evening they pitch their tents, and join in prayer; to this act of devotion supper succeeds; then they sit down in a ring, converse or recite stories till their eyes are closed in sleep. The Arabic language becomes extremely agreeable in the mouths of the camel drivers; it is then equally soft, and more sonorous than the Italian; their particular dialect resembles the ancient language of the Alcoran, which for 1200 years has scarcely undergone any alteration. The Arabs of Mogaffra, and those of Woled-Abuscbah, compose extemporaneous verses with great readiness; the women are good judges of poetry, and show particular favour for those young Arabs who excel in this literary exercise.

Deserts and oases of the centre.

We do not know the precise situation of the deserts of Zuenga and Targa, mentioned by Leo: they must be to the north of the oasis of Thuat. The Lemtuna people of this writer seem to form part of the Tuariks of the moderns. Agadez, a large town inhabited by slave-merchants, and situated to the south of Tezzane, is also known by the name of Tuarik,* probably as being the chief settlement of that people.

* Abderrhaman, in dans le Nouv. Mus. Allem. III. p. 988.

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Origin of the desert.

May not the great desert which we have now described be the dried basin of a sea? Diodorus speaks of the lake of the Hesperides, which was turned into dry land by an earthquake; perhaps the countries of Mount Atlas, once surrounded by a double Mediterranean, formed that celebrated Atlantic island which is sought for in every direction and nowhere found. On the borders of the great desert there are immense collections of the remains of marine animals. The Soodan is destitute of salt, but the deserts of Zahara are covered with it. Pliny and Leo concur in saying that in several districts, sal-gem was cut like marble or jasper, and used as stones for building houses. These facts seem favourable to the hypothesis now mentioned; but the level of the desert is unknown; and such theories do not, in the present state of retrospective geology, admit of any approximation to proof.

# BOOK LXVI.

## SENEGAMBIA AND GUINEA.



THE country which we are now to visit, affords a remarkable example, both of the beneficence of nature and of the perversity of the human mind. Those countries, in which tyranny and ignorance have not had the power to destroy the inexhaustible fecundity of the soil, have, down to the present times, been the theatre of eternal robbery, and one vast market of human blood.

Climate and temperature of Senegambia.

The sea-coasts of this country experience the most intense heat that is known in any part of the globe. The cause of this is to be found in the east winds which arrive on these coasts, after having swept over the burning surface of Africa in all its breadth.* At Goree, in the years 1787 and 1788, in November and in May, the thermometer stood at 68° and 88½°: during the night it did not fall below 60°. From May till November it did not fall below 77° nor rise above 99½. Thus there are just two seasons; the one may be considered as a moderate summer, the other as a continuation of burning dog-days. But, during the whole year, the sun at mid-day is unsupportable. At Senegal it is most intense, amounting to 113° and sometimes to 131°. The barometer almost always rises in

* Schotte dans Forster et Sprengel, Recueil des Mémoires pour la Géographie et l'Ethnographie, I. p. 55.

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those circumstances under which it falls in France, that is, at the commencement of a storm. The north and north-west winds blow almost without interruption. The east or trade winds are only felt within 90 or 120 miles of the coast. The south wind is very rare. During the great heats a dead calm prevails for about 30 days, which is enervating to the most robust constitutions. From the beginning of June till the middle of October, sixteen or eighteen heavy rains fall, amounting to fifty or sixty inches of water. A single one sometimes gives as much as six or seven inches. During the rest of the year there are heavy dews.*

Winds.

Temperature of Guinea.

Of all the countries of western Africa, the Gold Coast seems to be subjected to the most intense heats. Near Rio Volta, Isert saw the thermometer of Fahrenheit rise to 95½ within an apartment, while it was 134 in the open air, which surpasses by 26 degrees the greatest heats observed by Adanson on the banks of the Senegal.

Winds.

In the Gulf of Guinea the prevailing winds are from the south-west, which makes it difficult for vessels which venture into it to get out. This direction of the wind, being contrary to the trade winds, is to be explained by the rarefaction of the air in the central countries of this part of Africa,—a circumstance from which some infer the absence of high mountains.

Hurricanes

Between Cape Verga and Cape Palmas, the hurricanes called tornadoes, from a Portuguese term for whirlwinds, are very frequent in summer and autumn; their approach is announced by a small cloud apparently five or six feet broad, remaining immoveably in one spot. This soon extends, and covers a great part of the horizon. An impetuous whirling wind now breaks forth, which lasts only about a quarter of an hour: but in this short space, enormous trees are torn up by the roots, cottages are thrown down, entire villages destroyed, and vessels driven from their an-

* Adanson, Voyage au Senegal. Wadstrom, sur les Colonies, p. 55, trad. Allem. de M. Zimmermann.

chors and wrecked. This scourge is unknown on the Senegal, and even from Cape Blanco to Cape de Verga; but it sometimes occurs in the Zahara. The winds raise the impalpable sand, for ming them into columns which rise to an immense height, and become a sort of sand-spout. After different changes of form, they are either dissipated through the air, or carried along, sometimes to very great distances; sometimes they break through in the middle with a crash like the explosion of a mine.* The harmattan, the name of which seems to be of European origin, (*air matan*) is an east wind which prevails chiefly in Benin, and extends to the Gold Coast; it brings on a dry haze; the horizon is darkened, the skins of animals and men become contracted and chopped. These harmattans are felt about the solstices.†

Mountains.

Near the sources of the Senegal, the Joliba or Niger, the Gambia, and the Mesurado, there is a nucleus of mountains from which, according to the most recent accounts, some branches go off like so many rays, which might lead us to suppose that they are granitic, or schistous mountains, yet the numerous falls in the rivers seem to indicate a surface rising by terraces, and hence probably calcareous. Some of them must be of great elevation, if the reports of the negroes to M. Mollien were correct, that to the southeast of Timbo and the sources of the great river, some of the mountains "have a white hat."‡

The mountains on the coast, from Cape de Verde to the Gambia, present indications of valcanoes, which, however, are allowed to be equivocal, as the lavas of authors may be considered as basaltic rocks. The foot of Siera Leon Cape is encircled with basaltic rocks, called by the English Carpenter's Rocks, and the whole coast has the same general appearance. Immense alluvial tracts make Senegambia to

* Philosoph. Trans. LXX. p. 478.

† Aitkin's Voyage, p. 147.

‡ Mollien's Travels to the Sources of the Senegal and Gambia, edited by Bowditch, p. 292.

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have some resemblance to Guinea. The islands to the south of the Gambia are partly inundated, and continually accumulating.

Rivers.

The rivers of this country are very numerous. The

The Senegal.

Senegal, long confounded with the Niger, rises in the country of Foota-Jallon, near Timbo, about 10° N. lat. and has a course, first to the north-east, then to the north-west, then west, more than 800 miles in all, before it reaches the ocean.* Among the falls of this river, that of the Feloo rock merits most particular attention. For seven months in the year the rock stops the course of the water, but during the other five they rise high enough to flow over the top of the rock. At the mouth of the Senegal there is a bar which prevents the entrance of all vessels that draw more than ten feet of water, though immediately within the bar the river is thirty feet deep. La Barthe observes, that in 1779 the entrance of the bar was eleven miles from the island of St. Louis, though now it is fourteen. These variations are of great importance in determining the mooring grounds. They are owing to the currents in opposite directions, which, in proportion to their relative strength, deposit the sand in a place from which they afterwards carry it away. Similar shiftings take place over the coast in general. The banks of the Senegal become highly picturesque when we ascend 140 miles from the sea. Lined with hills and mountains, where tall trees, mixed with handsome shrubs, form verdant arches and amphitheatres, this river would furnish one of the most interesting voyages in the world, were not its charms so essentially impaired by the unwholesomeness of the air, the hideous aspect of the crocodiles, and the bellowing of the hippopotamus. The merchants even avoid it, and prefer going by land.† While the Senegal is only navigable in the rainy season, the Gambia cannot be navigated except

The Gambia.

* Mollien, p. 152.

† Durand, Voyage au Senegal, p. 343. Lamiral, l'Afrique et le peuple Africain.

in the dry season. Forty gun frigates can go up thirty-seven miles, and large merchant vessels 180.* The rains give it an enormous increase of depth, but at the same time, such inordinate rapidity that no vessels can stem the current. This river, though exceedingly deep and wide, has only a course of 610 miles. The Rio Grande, no less remarkable both for depth and width at its mouth, which is encompassed with islands, has a course only half as long as that of the Gambia. The Rio Mesurado is remarked for its short and rectilinear course, but otherwise little known. The rivers of the coast of Guinea seem to take their rise in the Kong mountains, at distances from 300 to 400 miles. The Rio Volta, which is the least known, descends in a series of cascades; but the deepest angle of the Gulf of Guinea receives the Formosa, the Calabar, and other broad and deep streams, which form at their termination a delta larger than that of Egypt. We shall afterwards state some reasons for considering these rivers as the mouths of the Niger.

Vegetation.

Forest trees.

At the head of the trees of these regions stands that colossus of the vegetable kingdom, the immense baobab, the *Adansonia digitata* of Linnæus. Isert, a learned Dane, observed several species of this genus, though only one has been hitherto botanically known.† Its fruit, surnamed monkey's bread, affords abundant aliment to the negroes, who, at sun-rise, watch religiously the opening of its flowers, which have been closed during the night. The whole of Senegambia and Guinea is adorned with its green elliptic arches. The name of Cape de Verd is said to have been particularly suggested by the foliage of this tree. The wide trunk becomes hollow within while its diameter is augmenting, and the cavern which it forms is large enough to serve as a temple to the negroes, a hall of assembly to a tribe, or a habitation for several of their families. Its height, however, is very moderate. Mr. Golberry observ-

* Demanet, Labat, &c.

† Isert, Voyage à la Guinée, p. 110—281.

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ed one which was twenty-four feet high, by thirty-four in diameter, and 104 in circumference. The forests of these countries, equally close with those of Guiana or Brasil, contain, like them, cocoa-trees, palms, mangos, bananas or pisangs, tamarinds, papaws, various species of citrons, oranges, pomegranates, and sycamores.* Among the rest we remark the courbaril, or locust tree, a species of *Hymenæa*, which yields an agreeable beverage;† the *Elais Guinensis*, from which oil and a kind of butter are obtained; a pea-tree, a new species of *Robinia*, found on the Gold Coast; a tree resembling the tulip-tree, forming a new genus in the Linnean class of *Tetrandria*; and another, improperly called a cedar, which is a new species of *Avicennia*.‡ The valuable *shea*, or butter-tree, forms a great part of the riches of the kingdom of Bambook; but that tree, probably a species of *croton*, belongs more properly to Nigritia.§ The tallow-tree, however, according to Rœmer, grows on the coast of Guinea.

Aromatic plants.

It has been said that the nutmeg,‖ and the cinnamon-tree,¶ grow here spontaneously, though in small number, but the assertion requires to be accompanied with stronger evidence than we as yet have. It seems certain that the *Laurus cassia* grows in the forests. The existence of the coffee-tree** is only probable. We know that it grows to the south of Abyssinia, but we are not certain that it is precisely the Arabian species. Among other aromatic plants, Senegambia and Guinea possess a species of pepper, the *Cardamomum majus*, called, from its locality, *malagu-*

* Labat, Nouvelle Description, &c. I. p. 62. II. p. 322. III. p. 12—37, &c. Schott, in Sprengel, I. p. 66, 67. Adanson, Voyage au Sénégal.

† Labat, IV. p. 363.

‡ Isert, p. 116. 182, &c.

§ Labat, III. p. 345. Ehrmann, Histoire des Voyages, III. p. 72. Compare Rœmer, Relat. de la côte de Guinée, p. 175.

‖ Clarkson, on the Impolicy of the Slave Trade, p. 14.

¶ Smith's New Voyage, p. 162. Ehrmann, Histoire des Voyages, X. p. 40.

** Wadstrom, Essai sur les Colonies, p. 84.

*ette,* also pimento, Spanish pepper, and ginger. Cotton succeeds, and even excels that of Brazil.

The indigo of this country is excellent. A great number of valuable gums which this country furnishes as articles of commerce are well known, such as gum guaiac, the red astringent gum, gum copal, the inspissated juice of euphorbium, and *Sanguis draconis.* The courageous and able Wadstrom, a Swede, had brought from Africa fourteen kinds of valuable woods, among which were acajou and ebony. Several dye-woods are found here. Gums.

Alimentary plants are in great abundance. Two species of *Holcus* are cultivated, the *sorghum* and the *dourra.* There is a third species, called by Isert the *Holcus bicolor,* which is known by the Portuguese name *milho,* or millet, on the Gold Coast, and gives a return of 160 for one. Rice is cultivated in the high lands. Africa has received maize from America; but the potato, which in Fetoo is called *broddi,* seems to be indigenous.* The other esculent herbaceous plants are the yam, the manioc, or cassava, the large bean produced by the *Dolichos lignosus,* the delicious pine-apple, which grows in the most desert places, and lastly, different species of melons and of cucumbers. Orange, banana, and papaw trees have been introduced by the Portuguese, and grow in abundance and perfection. Alimentary plants.

Tobacco is found every where in great abundance; that of Senegal is excellent, but that of the Gold Coast is of the most indifferent kind. The negroes are so fond of smoking this plant that they complain less of hunger than of the want of tobacco. The sugar-cane, though abundant and excellent, serves only to feed the elephants, the pigs, and the buffaloes, who are extremely fond of it.† The negroes sometimes drink the juice of it. The exuberant abundance of the aloes, balsams, *Gloriosæ superbæ,* tuberoses, lilies, and amaranths, gives the flora of these countries a look of pomp and magnificence quite astonishing to the European traveller. The most singular feature of the African

* Mollien, p. 241.

† Wadstrom, p. 67.

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vegetation is perhaps the height to which the Guinea grass grows. This plant forms immense forests, from ten to thirty feet in height, where flocks of elephants and boars wander unseen. The enormous *boa* serpent conceals himself in this gigantic turf. In order to render the air more salubrious, or to prepare for cultivation, the negro frequently sets fire to these savannahs, which shine in long lines during the night, resembling rivers of fire, that relieve the gloom for a great way round; by day they cover the horizon with columns of smoke; and the birds of prey follow these conflagrations in flocks, to devour the serpents and lizards which the flames have suffocated. This practice has appeared to some of the learned to furnish the most natural explanation of the "torrents of fire," seen by Hanno, the Carthaginian, in his voyage to the south of *Cerne*.*

Guinea grass.

Animals.

No part of the world produces more numerous flocks of elephants, monkeys, and antelopes, deer, rats, and squirrels. In every part of Africa the elephant lives in a state of nature; he is nowhere tamed. The ancients justly observed, that the African elephant is smaller and less courageous than the Asiatic; but his organs of defence are much larger, the substance of his tusks is harder, and less apt to become yellow, and furnishes almost all the ivory of commerce. The method of catching them, employed by the chiefs, is to assemble the young men and take them out into the woods; at the season when the grass is dry, they set fire to the grass all round the elephants, who, finding themselves unable to escape from the flames, perish in the conflagration, sometimes to the number of twenty or thirty, by which means the negroes procure a large quantity of ivory. The hippopotamus, which lives in fresh water and marshy places, grows to a monstrous size, and is most frequently seen to the south of the river Cassemance. The rhinoceros is scarcely known even in Benin. The lion is less common than the panther and the leopard. The spotted or striped hyæna is frequent in the country, but

* See our History of Geography.

the common species is most common in the north of Africa. The jackal, however, is more formidable and destructive. The giraffe, which has been seen by Mungo Park and other travellers in Nigritia, sometimes wander over these coasts.*

The zebra is met with in droves, and the negroes hunt it for the sake of the skin and the flesh.

Monkeys.

The most remarkable species of monkey is the *Simia troglodytes*, called *kimpanzay* in Congo. It is the jocko of Buffon, who has confounded it with the ourang-outang of India. This monkey has less approximation to the human form than the ourang-outang; but perhaps surpasses him in intelligence. They sometimes attack people, especially women who carry any provisions, and beat them with sticks till they let go their burden; when pursued and attacked, they defend themselves by hurling stones and biting; and the females which have young ones to protect, are particularly fierce and courageous in their resistance.† A recent traveller says that this animal is far from being common. The hideous mandril varies according to his age; whence Linnæus has erroneously divided this species into two, (the *Simia maimon*, and *Marmon*.) According to a learned naturalist, it has not hitherto been found except in Guinea and on the Congo.‡ We likewise meet with the pithecus, the hamadryad, the *Simia leonina*, or macaque; the diana; the *Simia cephus*, or moustac; the *Callitriche*, or green ape; the *Simia sabæa;* the white-nose, or *Simia petaurista;* in short, almost all the tailed apes and baboons, of which these regions seem to be in a particular manner the native country. Two remarkable animals, akin to the monkey tribe, have hitherto been found only in Senegambia. These are the *Lemur galago*, and the *Lemur minutus*. The poto or sloth is common in Guinea. The Se-

* Sprengel and Forster, I. p. 72. III. p. 140.

† Mollien, p. 290.

‡ Cuvier, Ménagerie du Muséum, art. Mandrill.

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negal negroes catch the zibeth in a very young state, and tame it. Among the antelopes, or gazelles, the kob, the nanguer, and the nagar, inhabit the banks of the Senegal and Rio Volta. Some kevels and corinnæ are also found: these antelopes go in numberless flocks, which often contain upwards of a thousand.* The boar of Ethiopia peoples the marshy woods; but the pig of this country is small and weak. The dogs are of the size of our setters, but approach somewhat to the mastiff; they do not bark, and their hair is short, coarse, and red, as in all warm countries.† The horses of the Gold Coast are small and ugly; but Adanson admires the horse of Senegal. That river is probably the southern limit of the Berber, or Moorish breed. The ass is exceedingly handsome, and very strong. Camels are sometimes seen here, but never to the south of the Senegal. The negroes rear cattle, buffaloes, sheep, and goats.—The trumpet-bird, or monoceros, is found in all the court-yards of the negroes, together with the armed swan, the Egyptian swan, the pintado, and the greater part of the poultry known in Europe. Among the multitude of birds which inhabit the forests, we remark the *Ardea alba minor*, or aigrette, the feathers of which form an article of trade. The beautiful paroquets are in unlimited numbers. Swarms of them are seen to rise from the trees, frightened by the cries of the monkeys. Adanson saw the nest of an enormous species of eagle, or vulture, called by the natives, *n'ntann*. This nest was three feet high. Numerous families of sparrows and humming birds sport round the hut of the negro, and the immense baobab supports the nest of the enormous pelican.‡

Domestic animals.

Insects.

This region is much infested by venomous insects, disgusting reptiles, and clouds of locusts. Of the last, Isert distinguished more than twenty different species on the Gold Coast. On that coast cameleons are very common. The serpents are numerous, and some of them of enormous

* Golberry, Fragmens sur l'Afrique, t. II.

† Boemer, p. 273. Muller, p. 244. ‡ Mollien, p. 51

size. M. Mollien mentions a snake, the bite of which occasioned the skin to fall off in scales, an instance of which came under his eye. There are numerous swarms of wild bees, the honey and wax of which are objects of trade among the negroes. In the sequestered forests, the termites, improperly called white ants, display their astonishing industry. Golberry saw in the woods of Lamayava, and Albrida, on the banks of the Gambia, some pyramidal buildings, formed by these insects, which were sixteen feet high, and the bases of which occupied an area from 100 to 110 square feet. In these nests the wild bees generally deposit their honey, to obtain which, the natives set them on fire during the night, that they may avoid the risk of being stung by the bees.* The crocodiles, the cacholots, and the manatis, sometimes inhabit, in one common society, the mouths of the great rivers. Oysters are said to fasten in great multitudes on the immersed branches of the mango with which these rivers are bordered. They are large, fat, and very good to eat, though less fresh and cool than those found in more northern situations. Cowries, the shells called by naturalists *Cypræa moneta*, which are used as money in all these countries, as well as in many parts of India, are fished on the coast of Congo and Angola,† and are not brought hither from India as some travellers have asserted. We are not certain if they are found on the coast of Guinea Proper, as travellers give no precise statements on that point.‡ Much coral and ambergris is also procured on all these coasts.§

Termites.

Cowries.

The mineral kingdom of these equinoctial countries is probably as rich and varied, though not in so great proportion, compared to other parts of the world, since mineral productions are not influenced by climate; but we know little of their mineralogy. Among the objects most worthy of attention are the gold mines, which are said to exist in the country of Bambook, situated between the Se-

Minerals.

Gold mines

* Mollien, p. 227.

† Proyart, Relat. p. 25.

‡ Bruns, Afrika, IV. p. 347.

§ Wadstrom, p. 73.

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negal and the Gambia, at equal distances from the two rivers. If we believe two French writers, Pelays and David, who were sent into these countries by the old French Indian Company to examine these mines, they are situated near the villages of Natakon, Semayla, Nambia, and Kombadyree; but these grounds from which the negroes obtain gold, are only alluvial deposits, derived from real mines, concealed among the mountains of Tabaoora. Eighty pounds of crude mixed earth, taken from a pit in the small mountain of Natakon, yielded 144 grains and a half of gold. The Semayla mine appears to be the richest.*— There are also gold mines on the Gold Coast at Akim, five days' journey from the Danish Fort of Christianburg, but they are not very productive. At a distance of twelve days' journey farther north, near the mountains of Kong, we have reason to believe that the Accasers work a rich mine of this precious metal in the form of deep pits.† Iron ore, in the form of silicious stones, is abundant in many places, and is smelted by the inhabitants, and manufactured into vessels with the hammer; from which we may conclude that the metal is excellent in quality, and highly malleable.‡ Labat saw whole mountains of fine red marble with white veins. The negroes make fine pottery with a white unctuous earth, which is common in these countries. It is on the coast, and most especially in the rivers, near the gulf of the Idolos Islands, that the fat clay is found, which the people are said to mix with their food like butter.

Other minerals.

After this general view, we shall now proceed to some detailed descriptions of this wide and important region.

The French settlement.

The fertile plains, watered by the Senegal and the Gambia, are occupied by a multitude of small kingdoms, some consisting of the indigenous negroes, and others which have been seized by the Moors. Various European powers have perceived the advantages which this country offers for colonial establishments. The French at one time had the largest

* Golberry, t. I. p. 433. 439.

† Muller, l c. p. 271.

‡ Mollien, p. 147.

and most numerous, as Fort St. Louis, and Podor on the Senegal; the forts of St. Joseph and St. Pierre, in the interior in the kingdom of Galam; the island of Goree, called by the natives Barsaghish, near Cape Verd; Albreda and Joal, on the river Gambia; Bintam, on the Cerebes river; and the island of Bissaos. All these settlements are now abandoned, and the island of St. Louis is merely a factory under military government, the returns of which, in 1801, gave a population of 10,000 inhabitants, consisting in a great measure of slaves. According to Labat, a million and a half pounds weight of gum were exported; also 1500 negroes. The English have, besides Fort St. James, three factories on the Gambia; one at Vintain, another at Jookakonda, and a third at Pisania: the last of which is the farthest from the sea-coast. The French exported to the Senegal goods to the amount of £750,000; and the English disposed of an equal amount on the Gambia. Spirituous liquors were the chief articles.

Kingdom of Owal.

The kingdom of Owal, or Ualo, contains the lake of Panier Foule, which, in the dry season, is transformed into a fertile plain. The sovereign, who has the title of brak, (meaning king of kings,) is generally subject to the neighbouring Moors.

The Foulahs.

The Foulahs of Senegal live above Owal. Some of their tribes enjoy a turbulent independence, such as those of Footatoro, who are also remarked to be the most insolent and inhospitable.* The greater part of them are subject to a sovereign possessed of considerable power, who has the title of Siratik. In this country is situated Fort Podor, in the large and fertile island of Morfil, formed by two arms of the Senegal.

Extension of this people.

The Foulahs, who are also called Peuls or Foleys on the Senegal, are widely diffused over Africa. The great body of the nation lives about the sources of the Gambia and Rio-Grande. Besides the colonies found on the river Falémé and the Senegal, there are tribes of them on the

* Mollien, p. 188.

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south of Fezzan, on the confines of Bournoo, and even in the interior of this kingdom, where they are called Fellâta. The Foulahs also inhabit the kingdoms of Massina and Tombuctoo on the Joliba, and from these parts probably the colonies went off that are now found in Bournoo. This curious fact seems to be substantiated by some collections of words of the language of these people, made in Senegambia, compared with others, communicated to M. Seetzen by a Fellâta of the town of Ader, between Bournoo and Agadez.* The Foulahs have a reddish black or a yellowish brown complexion, longer and less woolly hair than the negroes, noses less flat, and lips not quite so thick.† These features seem to indicate a mixture of the Berber and Negro race. But this mixed nation, which puts the reader in mind of the *Leucæthiopes* of the ancients, seems to us to have received from the Arabs not only the religious and civil influence of the Koran, but also the name which it bears, which seems to be the same with that of the Fellahs or cultivators of Egypt. The Foulahs have mild dispositions, flexible minds, and a great turn for agriculture; but those among them who live by rearing cattle, migrate from one country to another rather than submit to tyrannical rulers.

Serracolets.

The different states of the Serracolet or Serrawoolet negroes, form a sort of confederation, of which Galam is the metropolis; but the true name of the country is Kadjâga.

Kingdom of Galam.

The king of Galam at least enjoys a certain ascendency over that country, which he owes chiefly to the trade of which his territories are the centre, as well as to the trade in prisoners, who are brought from more distant countries. By an agreement among all the Serracolet princes, the throne of Galam is occupied by their families by turns.‡ These negroes are treacherous and cruel, their complexion

* Mithridates, by Adelung and Vater, III. p. 146.

† Golberry, Voyage en Afrique, I. p. 101, &c. Oldendorp, Histoire de la Mission des Frères évangéliques, p. 274. Labat, III. p. 170. Pommegorge, Descript. de la Nigritie, p. 52.

‡ Golberry, Voyage en Afrique, I. p. 571.

is extremely black, and it is difficult to distinguish them from the Yalofs.* The air of the country is the purest along the coast. The Serracolets are great smelters of iron. For hammering it they use rounded pieces of granite, encircled with a leather band fastened to thongs, which the workman holds in his hands. He raises and drops it alternately on the iron, which is placed on a low anvil in the sand, and thus fashions it into bars eight inches long.† They are the most skilful and persevering in commercial affairs of all the negroes; and being reputed rich, their travelling merchants are obliged to pay heavier duties, in the form of presents, to the chiefs through whose territories they pass. In Galam they are great hunters. Some describe them as treacherous and criminal. Yet it is allowed by all that hospitality is practised by them in a most ample and disinterested manner.

The Mandingos.

The Mandingos are spread over the country which bears their name, and which is near the sources of the Niger. They extend eastward among the states of Bambara, and westward among those of Bambook and Woolly. These negroes, who are not of so fine a black as the Yalofs, file down their teeth to a pointed shape. They are a sort of Mahometans, have many Arabic words, and use the Arabic alphabet.‡ Their maraboots, or hermits, perform long commercial journeys, and receive visits from those of Morocco and Barbary. They are well acquainted with the interior of Africa,§ and the negro slave trade is in their hands. Since the year 1100 this nation has ruled over the rich kingdom of Bambook.

The Bambookans.

The Bambookans furnish an example of the usual fate of a corrupted people. Their rich and fruitful soil supplies the inhabitants with the necessaries of life, with scarcely any labour.‖ Voluptuous and indolent, they live in a state of

* Labat, III. p. 308—370. IV. p. 45.

† Mollien, p. 213. 288.

‡ Matthews' Voyage to Sierra Leone, p. 71—97, &c.

§ Jobson, in Purchas's Pilgrim, p. 1573.

‖ Compagnon, dans l'Histoire Générale des Voyages.

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utter anarchy, and their wealth becomes the prey of their more active neighbours. Major Houghton, however, gives them a more favourable character, representing them as an industrious people, who manufacture cotton stuffs and iron utensils.*

Jallonkadoo.

The kingdom of Jallonkadoo, in which the river Senegal takes its rise to the south-east and south of Bambook, is inhabited by numerous tribes, whose language, notwithstanding the doubts of Mungo Park, seems to be a dialect of the Mandingo.† The Jallonka race have, in general, been either converted or persecuted by the Foulahs and other Mahometans. Some fugitives, who have not renounced fetichism, have sought an asylum in the most mountainous districts, such as the mountains of Niekolo and Randeia, where they have mixed with the Youluks, and produced a mulatto breed, who are savage and wretchedly poor. They are remarked for bad and decayed teeth. On the east side of these heights, where the chief rivers begin their course, there is a remarkable difference in the domestic animals. The ass, which is found wild on the southern declivity, is here so entirely unknown, that when M. Mollien brought one with him in his travels, an animal so strange produced consternation among the inhabitants, both young and old.‡ Descending the Senegal from this country, we might name kingdoms and principalities almost without number; but we shall merely notice the state of Bondoo, a pastoral country to the west of Bambook; the inhabitants of which manufacture cotton cloths, and dye them black with indigo.§ The country of Kassan, to the east of Galam, is considered as rich in gold, silver, and coffee.

The Yalofs.

The country between the Senegal and the Gambia is chiefly inhabited by the Yalof, sometimes called the Walof nation. They are the most handsome negroes of west-

* Elucidations of African Geography, p. 9.

† See the words quoted in Mithridates, III. p. 169.

‡ Mollien, p. 228, 230.

§ Voyage au pays de Bambouc, 1789.

ern Africa. They have woolly hair and thick lips, and very black complexions, but are tall and well made, and their features remarkably regular. If we credit M. Golberry, they are a mild, hospitable, generous, and faithful race; and their women are as attractive as jet-black females can be.

They call themselves Mahometans, but their religion has an alloy of idolatry and superstition. Their language is graceful and easy. Their chief takes the title of *Barb-i-Yalof*, emperor of the Yalofs, and reigns over an extensive country, little visited by Europeans. His place of residence is Hikarkor. Rich in provisions, cattle, and poultry, this country flourishes under a more regular administration than that of the adjoining states. Justice is administered by a chief judge, who holds circuit courts over the kingdom.* The people manufacture cotton goods.†

Emperor of the Yalofs.

Several states have separated from the Yalof empire; such as that of Baol, and that of Cayor, governed by a prince who has the title of Damel. Cape Verd and the small island of Goree, which was fortified and embellished by the French, are in the territory of Damel.

Detached states.

The most commercial of the Yalof states is that of Salum, on a branch of the Gambia. The king's residence is at Kahan; his cottage is within an inclosure of great extent, which contains more than sixty others, inhabited by his wives, children, officers, and principal slaves. At its entrance are three large courts, lined with the cottages of his servants, each court being guarded by twenty men armed with javelins and zagays. In the centre of the royal inclosure the cottage of the prince stands by itself, in the form of a round tower, thirty feet in diameter, and forty-five in height, covered with a dome of twenty feet. It is built, like all the dwellings in this part of Africa, of pieces of wood covered with millet straw, but executed more nice-

Kingdom of Salum.

Palace of Kahane.

* Benezet's Account of Guinea, p. 8. (London, 1788.)

† Francis Moore's Travels, &c. p. 51.

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ly than ordinary houses. The cieling is covered with carpets curiously figured; the floor is formed of a composition of a kind of mastic with red earth and sand, and covered with mats. The cieling is hung all round with muskets, pistols, and other arms, and horse harness. The king is seated on a low stage at the farthest part of the cottage, fronting the entrance. The kingdom has an area of 11,500 square miles. The population is said to be 300,000; the lands are fertile and well cultivated; the foreign commerce is extensive, particularly with the French and English, the former nation being most respected, and best adapted to the character of the people.

The Serreres.

The Serreres, a wild and simple tribe, without cultivation or laws, live in the country of Sin, (or Barb-Sin,) and that of Baol. The negroes call them savages, but Europeans speak in praise of their mild and peaceful dispositions.*

Petty states.

It is in works more voluminous than the present that a reader could expect to find a complete enumeration of the little principalities situated along the Gambia, together with the discussions which might arise out of the perpetual contradictions found among travellers.† We shall notice, on the north bank of the river, the countries of Barrah, of Yani, and of Woolly, the capital of which, called Cassana by the negroes,‡ and known also by the Arabic term, Medina, or the city, is populous and hospitable. To the south of the Gambia, there are twenty small states which dispute with one another their obscure existence. The most conspicuous nation is that of the Feloops, whose territories are greatly scattered, and extend from the Gambia to the river St. Dominique, and a little beyond it. Sa-

The Feloops.

* Pommegorge, Descript. de la Nigritie, p. 120—126. Labat, IV. p. 156.

† Moore's Travels, p. 200.

‡ Schad, a German Traveller, quoted by Bruns, Afrika, IV. p. 289. Compare Golberry, I. p. 109.

vage and revengeful, but faithful to their friends, they scarcely acknowledge any government; and the paltry fetiche is the only object of their worship. Their country is flat, somewhat sandy, but rich in pasture and rice grounds, abounding in cattle, and maintaining numerous swarms of wild bees, which produce a great quantity of wax. Higher up the country there are steep mountains, composed according to a rather unlearned traveller, of fine sandstone.

Boundaries of Guinea.

The mutual boundaries of Senegambia and Guinea are left to the caprice of geographers. In the interior of this doubtful space, on the upper part of the Rio Grande, live the nation of the Soosoo, erroneously called the Foulahs of Guinea. They have nothing in common with the Foulahs of the Senegal, though Golberry says otherwise. This is shown by the whole dissimilarity of their language.*

Teembo, the capital of their country, contains about 7000 inhabitants. They have iron mines, worked by women, also some manufactures in silver, copper, and wood; it is said that these people can bring into the field 16,000 cavalry, or upwards. They are Mahometans, but surrounded by twenty-four pagan nations or tribes, on whom they are always ready to make war, in order to procure slaves.

Laws and manners.

They live in a sort of federal republic, in which a secret association, resembling the vehmic, or black tribunal of the middle age, maintains order and dispenses justice. This is called the *poorrah*. Each of the five cantons of the nation has one of its own, to which the men are not admitted till they are thirty years of age. The principal members, consisting of persons above fifty years of age, form the *supreme poorrah*.† The mysteries of initiation, accompanied with some dreadful test of merit, are celebrated in the midst of a sacred forest. All the elements are put in requisition to try the courage of the candidate. It is

* See eight grammars and dictionaries of the Soosoo language, published at Edinburgh, in 1800—1802.

† Golberry, Voyage en Afrique, I. p. 114.

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said that he finds himself assaulted by roaring lions, who are restrained by concealed chains. A dreadful howling is kept up over the whole forest; and a devouring fire flames around the inviolate inclosure. Any member who has committed a crime, or betrayed the secrets of the body, finds himself visited by armed and masked emissaries. On the ominous words being pronounced, "the poorrah sends the death," his relations and friends desert him, and he is left to the avenging sword. Even entire tribes, which make war in contempt of the orders of the great *poorrah*, are laid under the ban, and oppressed by the united attacks of armed deputations from all the neutral tribes. This institution seems to indicate an improved degree of intelligence, and considerable elevation of sentiment.

The Papals.

Proceeding now along the line of coast, we find some detached low lands on the south of the river St. Dominique, inhabited by the Papals, who are all pagans, worshipping trees, cow's horns, and all sorts of visible objects. When their king dies, according to the report of a traveller, the grandees range themselves around his coffin, which is tossed high up in the air by some sturdy negroes, and the individual on whom the coffin falls, if not killed by the weight, succeeds to the throne.*

They are a brave people, their only weapon is a very long sabre. Large herds of oxen constitute their chief wealth which they fatten with rice straw. The territories of these people extend from the river Geba, to that of Cacheo, the gates of the Portuguese settlement of Bissao. And the market of that town is so dependent on them for supplies of provisions, that the Portuguese government find themselves under the necessity of cultivating habits of good neighbourhood, with having on some occasions been threatened with a famine when a good understanding was accidentally interrupted.

On the frontiers of the Papals, to the south, dwell the Balantes, a cruel and savage race, with whom the Portu-

* Schad, quoted by Bruns, p. 239.

guese have very little communication. Salt is the only article of merchandize which they sell. They eat dogs, and reckon rats the most exquisite of dishes.

Portuguese settlement.

Cacheo a fortress with a small town, is the station of the Portuguese authorities, and of a weak garrison to maintain in point of form the sovereignty of Portugal over this coast. There is also a fortress called Bissao on a large island of the same name formed by the river Geba, at its mouth. The situation is rendered unhealthy by the dampness, accompanied with the intense heat. Yet it is said rather to have the effect of rendering life sickly, than of abridging its duration. The soldiers of the garrison consist chiefly of mulattoes and blacks, with a few whites without shoes or uniform, but are muffled up in robes of flowered cotton and mostly in rags. They are on the whole much neglected by the government. All the commerce here is conducted by barter, and is exclusively in the hands of the governor, who thus acquires considerable wealth, while the inhabitants are idle and poor. In an inland situation 160 miles up the river Geba, is the Portuguese settlement called Geba, of which M. Mollien gives a curious account. The commandant receives visits in a large hall where straw beds are placed all round, on which the negroes seat themselves indiscriminately with Europeans, and every one has complete personal liberty either to whistle or lie down to sleep, or eat at any time he thinks fit; yet none must pass the door without taking off his hat most respectfully, whether the master be within or not. The surrounding district is called Kaboo, and is inhabited by a mixture of nations consisting chiefly of pagan Madingoes. The villages are large and populous, and the fields well cultivated. The houses of Geba are composed of mud, and there is no fort; the soldiers are negroes. The settlers are on good terms with the surrounding natives, who make war on one another's villages, and sell their captives at this place to the Portuguese. M. Mollien saw only three Europeans at this place.

Bissajos islands.

The Bissajos islands form a smiling and fertile archipe-

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lago, surrounded, and almost covered on the west side by a series of sand and clay banks, 165 miles long, rendering the navigation extremely dangerous.

The soil of these islands is watered by numerous small rivers; it produces rice, oranges, citrons, bananas, melons, peaches, and excellent pastures, on which the inhabitants rear cattle, consisting chiefly of hump-backed oxen of prodigious size. Fish are in great abundance on all their shores.

Bulam.

Bulam Island, which is the one nearest the continent, was pronounced by the intelligent M. Brue, a good place for a French settlement;* the English hearing of the plan, hastened to anticipate it; but they treated the natives rudely; they neglected the precautions which the climate requires; their colony went to ruin, and is now annihilated.† The useful plants grow here in great profusion, as rice, indigo, the coffee shrub, the tea shrub, and a variety of fruit trees. But the air is humid, and proves highly deleterious when the due precautions are not observed.‡

Manners of the people.

The Bissajos, or Bidjoogas, make themselves formidable to their neighbours, by their incursions, and the cruelties which they commit. Fishing and piracy are professions which they cultivate by turns. The cock is esteemed among them a sacred animal. They possess much muscular strength of arm, harsh features, and quick movements. Almost all of them have muskets, or lances, which they use with much address. Their petty chiefs have turbulent subjects and tempestuous courts. The family of a minister is sometimes ordered by the caprice of a despot to be sold into slavery. Fertile as this archipelago is, the diet of the inhabitants is extremely simple. Zealous friends of the Portuguese, they bear an implacable hatred to other European nations.

Rio Grande.

The Portuguese have numerous settlements along the banks of the Rio Grande, especially on the south bank. Entire villages are peopled by their race; but the English

* Labat, V. p. 85. Pommegorge, p. 133—135.

† Beaver, African Memoranda.

‡ Johansen's Account of the Island of Bulam, (London, 1780.)

derive much more commercial profit from them than their own nation. The north bank of the river is occupied by the Biafars, called also Jolas, who possess all the track that lies between the Geba and the Rio Grande. This people are almost continually at war with the Papels; but they are much gentler, and more tractable, and suffer much from the former, to whom the wealth acquired by their industry presents strong temptations. Here we find the city of Gonala, where the king resides; Bidjooga, on a river of the same name; Balola, and several Portuguese settlements, the largest of which is Caooda, about 140 miles from the mouth of the river. The south bank is inhabited by the Naloës, a negro race so completely mingled with the descendants of the original Portuguese, as not to be distinguishable from them. Their pursuits are agricultural and pastoral, and their country is exceedingly fertile. The Portuguese have introduced among them some useful knowledge; their well cultivated fields produce the best indigo, and the finest cottons. The cloths which they manufacture from the latter substance are highly valued for the fineness of their fabric, and they have the art of dyeing them with beautiful colours, which make them objects of demand with the adjoining nations. Their principal river is Nuno-Tristao, called by some writers Nonunas, a name which appears favourable to the views of those who wish to identify it with the river Nunius of Ptolemy; but both terms are of Portuguese origin.

The Naloës.

The islands of Los, where some English merchants have formed a settlement,* owe their present name to the Portuguese, being a corruption of *Yola de los idolos*. The native inhabitants are called Forotimah.

Immediately to the south of this Portuguese line of coast we find the English settlement of Sierra Leone, formed in 1787, for the express purpose of labouring to civilize the Africans. In this quarter the English have made the greatest exertions to limit, if not to abolish the trade in slaves, but philanthropy, and penal statutes, and vigilance, have been found but feeble barriers, when opposed to the cupi-

Sierra Leone. Philanthropic settlement.

* Curry's Observations on the Windward Coast, p. 180.

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dity of unprincipled traders. It is computed that there are not less than three hundred vessels on the coast, engaged in this disgraceful traffic, which is probably carried on to as great an extent at this day as at any former period. It appears from papers recently laid before the British Parliament,* that the whole line of Western Africa, from the river Senegal to Benguela, that is to say, from about the latitude of 15° north, to the latitude of about 13° south, has, during that period, swarmed with slave vessels; and that an active and increasing slave trade has also been carried on, upon the eastern shores of that continent, particularly from the island of Zanzebar. Not less than 10,000 liberated slaves, from the slave ships captured by British cruizers, were calculated to be in the colony in 1821. The landing of these cargoes is often a very affecting scene. The poor creatures, delivered from the hold of a slave ship, faint and emaciated by harsh treatment and disease, when received with kindness and sympathy by the inhabitants, among whom, perhaps, they recognise a brother, a sister, or countryman, whom they had supposed long since dead, but whom they are astonished to see clothed and clean, are overwhelmed with feelings which they find it difficult to express.† On their arrival, those of a proper age are named, and sent to the adjacent villages. A house and lot is appointed to each family; they are supported one year by government, at the expiration of which they are obliged to provide for themselves. The captured children are also sent to villages, where they are kept at school till married, which is always at an early age. At the head of each village is a missionary, who acts in the double capacity of minister and schoolmaster. The number of persons attending the schools in January, 1821, was 1959.

Slave trade.

Liberated slaves.

The African Institution endeavours to promote a friendly intercourse with distant, as well as neighbouring countries. The natives of Foulah resort to the colony to participate in the advantages of legitimate commerce; and it may even be expected, that some years hence, caravans shall

Commerce.

* Report of Commodore Sir G. R. Collier, Dec. 27, 1821.

† Sixteenth Report of the African Institution, p. 32?.

resort to the neighbourhood of Porto Logo, (on a branch of the Sierra Leone,) to convey the manufactures of Europe into the very interior of the continent of Africa.* Trade is rapidly increasing. The total invoice amount of imports at the port of Freetown, for the year 1820, was L.66,725. 9s. 4¾d.; and, for the same period in 1821, the amount was L.105,060. 15s. 10¾d. being an increase of L.38,335. 6s. 6d.

The exertions of the African Institution, aided by the Missionaries of the Church of England, have effected a remarkable improvement in the morals of the inhabitants, who are stated to be generally contented and industrious.

The total population of Sierra Leone, by the latest returns, is computed at 17000. Besides Freetown,† there have been built Regent's Town, which contains nearly 2000 inhabitants, and the towns of Gloucester, Leopold, Charlotte, and Bathurst, all of which appear to be thriving. A little to the west of Sierra Leone is Krootown, a small village inhabited by about 500 Kroomen. The British ships of war on the station, have each from twenty to seventy of these men in their books, who are said, whatever their pilfering habits may be on shore, to behave with the utmost propriety on board of ship. A fort, erected on the Island of Bance, commands the entrance of the river, which has been ascended by Europeans as high as was allowed by its picturesque cataracts. In this country indigo grows well; several varieties of coffee are known,‡ the citron is degenerated, and its fruit resembles lemons. All the esculent and aromatic plants of Africa are in great abundance. The gum of the butter-tree is used as a yellow dye; the *colla* bark seems to belong to a species of *cinchona*.§ The pullam-tree produces a silky cotton. The chimpanzey monkey is met with in the interior; an animal five feet in height, with a pale face, the hands and stomach without hair, habitually holding himself erect, and even, it is said, sitting like a man; cir-

* Sixteenth Report of the African Institution. † Ib. 354.

‡ Afzelius, in the Report on Sierra Leone, addressed to the Proprietors, Curry, p. 37.

§ Curry, p. 46.

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cumstances which make him highly interesting to the naturalist.*

When the Portuguese discovered these places, they called the promontory to the south of the present settlement Cape Ledo, and the mountains in the interior Sierra Leone, or "the Mountain of the Lioness." This name, somewhat disfigured, has been since given to the Cape, the river, and the adjacent district.†

Division of Guinea into coasts.

The English seamen have given the name of the Windward Coast to all that lies between Cape Mount and the river Assinee,‡ and they divide it into three parts, the Grain Coast, which terminates in Cape Palmas; the Ivory Coast, bounded on the east by the river Frisco or Lagos, and the coast; and the coast of Adoo or Kaka comprehending the remainder. The part lying between Cape Palmas and Apollonia, is generally included under the name of the *Côte de Dents*, or the Ivory Coast. The English themselves differ in their application of the term Windward Coast; some of them extending it no farther east than Cape Palmas.§ The Gold Coast begins either at Cape Apollonia, or the river Assinee, and is generally considered as terminating at the river Volta. Then comes the Slave Coast, that of Benin or Wara, that of Calabar, and that of the river Gabon. All these countries taken together form Guinea in its strictest acceptation, which we shall here retain.

Productions of the Grain Coast.

Between Cape Mount and Cape Palmas, the coast produces abundance of rice, yams, and manioc. The cotton and indigo of this country are of the first quality.‖ The articles for which Europeans have hitherto visited it are malaguette pepper, red wood, and ivory. The inhabitants are skilful and intrepid rowers, and bid defiance to Euro-

* Afzelius, libro citato.

† Dalzel's Instructions on the Coast of Africa. London, 1806.

‡ Norris and Young, quoted by Dalzel.

§ Clarkson's Essay on Slavery, p. 29. Newton's Thoughts on the African Slave Trade, at the beginning.

‖ Falconbridge, Account of the Slave Trade, p. 53.

peans. The negroes on the banks of the river Mesurado speak a corrupt dialect of Portuguese, and acknowledge themselves vassals to Portugal, but are not, as some have supposed, Europeans changed to negroes by the power of the climate. Sesthos, or Sestre, is a pretty large negro town. The houses are in the form of conical huts two stories high.* BOOK LXVI.

The old travellers, consulted by Dapper,† assign a place here to the kingdoms of Quoya and Hondo, which they describe as dependent on a more powerful kingdom in the interior, the inhabitants of which were called Mendi-Manoo, that is, the governing people. The word *manoo*, or *monoo*, an epithet common to all the tribes of these nations, has a striking affinity to the word *mannoo*, which signifies man in the dialect of the Sokkos, a people, of whom Oldendorp, the missionary, knew some individuals at Saint Croix, and who must live to the north-west of the Aminas.‡ The Sokkas are neighbours to the Uwangs. The specimens of their language given by Oldendorp, resemble the Jallonkadoo words given by Mr. Park. The king of the Sokkos has many princes under him, and takes the title of *mansa*. There are presumptions of the identity of the Sokkas with the Mendi-Manoos. In manners and laws, these people bear some resemblance to the Soosoos. They have a secret tribunal, a mysterious order called *Belli-Raaro*, similar to the *poorrah* of the Soosoos.§ At the funeral of a man his favourite wife is sacrificed by the priests and thrown into the grave of her husband. The Sokkos, whom Oldendorp knew, said that baptism and circumcision were among the religious practices of their country, from which a learned geographer rather boldly attempts to infer some connection between the nations of Guinea and the Abyssinians.‖ These Sokkos, it must be remarked, are quite different from the Asokkos, in the country of the Issinese, on the

Quoya and Hondo countries, &c.

Manners.

* Atkin's Voyage, p. 63. Smith's Voyage, p. 106.

† Dapper, Descript. de l'Afrique, p. 386, &c. (edit. All. de 1670.)

‡ Oldendorp, Hist. des Missions Evangel. p. 280.

§ Dapper, l. citat. p. 415.

‖ Bruns, Afrika, IV. p. 374.

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Gold Coast, which appear to us to be the Insokkos of M. Ehrmann,* though M. Bruns says† that he could not find the Insokkos.

Two other traditions are worthy of our notice. The nations now mentioned have been subdued by the Folgians, who are probably the southern Foulahs. Another nation called the Gallas has been expelled from these countries,‡ but to look in these for the Gallas on the confines of Abyssinia, is to confound the negro and the Caffre race with each other.

Ivory Coast.

The Ivory Coast, as far as Cape Lahoo, is inhabited by a warlike nation of a dark unsociable disposition, at least towards Europeans, and according to report addicted to cannibalism.§ The Portuguese have surnamed them *malas-gentes*. The coast is adorned with natural orchards. In the river St. André, elephant's teeth are exposed for sale, weighing 200 lbs. The animal called quogelo mentioned by Desmarchais, does not resemble any species known to us.

The Quaquas.

To the east of Cape Lahoo, are the Quaquas, or Good People. These are divided into castes like the Hindoos and ancient Egyptians, and the son uniformly follows the profession of his father.

The Gold Coast.

The Gold Coast derives its name from the great trade in gold dust carried on in it, which has given rise to many European establishments. It also abounds in fish, the chief of which are the sea bull, and the fish called from its shape, the hammer.

European settlements.

The forts and counting houses belonging to Europeans in this quarter, are about forty in number, fifteen Dutch, fourteen English, four Portuguese, four Danish, and three French. At present most of them have been destroyed or deserted, which some ascribe to the slave trade; a circumstance which, if true, would indicate that they were concerned in a business less innocent than the trade in gold dust.

* Hist. des Voyages, X. p. 137. † Afrika, IV. p. 376.

‡ Dapper, p. 388.

§ Smith, p. 110. Desmarchais, Voyage à Cayenne, &c. I. p. 200.

The Dutch trade was concentrated at Elmina. The principal English establishment was Cabo-Corso. The head quarters of the Danes were Christianburg; the Danish forts of Printzensten and Konegsten are well built. The Danes commanded the river Volta, and were in great favour with the tribes on the coast.

Particulars on the interior.

A learned Dane, Mr. Isert, went into the country of Aquapim, fifty-six miles from Christianburg. The country seemed beautiful, fertile, and populous. It is generally well wooded, yet more salubrious than the sea-shore, and agreeably diversified with mountains, valleys, and hills. Water, which on the sea-shore is scarce and brackish, is good and plenty in the interior. At a distance of five Danish miles from Christianburg, a chain of mountains begins, which is covered with tall trees, and composed of coarse-grained granite, gneiss, and quartz. The information obtained by the researches of the African Association of London coincides with the accounts of Mr. Isert.

In the neighbourhood of the sea, the soil of Guinea is in many places light and sandy, and consequently unfavourable to the culture of the greater part of tropical productions. In places where the soil is of a deficient character, the vegetation of many plants is opposed by other circumstances. Among these are the coolness and moisture of the sea-breezes, or south-west winds, which meet with nothing along the coast to interrupt their progress; the saline impregnation which the air derives from the sea; and the surf, which is general and violent. At a distance of two or three miles from the shore, the land becomes more productive, and improves progressively, till, at a distance of eight miles, it becomes very fertile and fit for all the crops reared in intertropical situations. The climate at the same time is sufficiently temperate to admit of the vegetation of the different grasses and trees of Europe.*

Cultivation of the land.

These observations apply in a particular manner to the

* Meredith's Description of the Agoona country, in the Fourth Annual Report of the African Association.

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Agoona country, of which Wimbak, or Winnebak, is the capital. All the lands of this district are in common. No person is allowed to become proprietor of more land than he can labour with his own hands: scarcely a tenth part of the land is cultivated. Each individual may occupy and till whatever portion he pleases; but if he leaves it untilled, he cannot prevent another from seizing it in the same temporary way. The purchasing and measuring of land are unknown among the people. It is never sold except to Europeans. The latter are safe from all disputes about their right of possession; but they are not equally sure of enjoying the benefit of their crops, unless they have an adequate force to defend them from the licentious covetousness of the natives.

Diversities of soil.

Though the whole Gold Coast exhibits one general character in its soil and climate, there are essential differences in some particulars. For example, the Anta country, which the river Aucobra separates from the State of Apollonia, has a rich soil, plenty of wood, is well watered, and industriously cultivated. It has harbours and good roadsteads. The State of Apollonia is still better watered with lakes and rivers; it contains more flat land adapted to rice crops, sugar cane, and other species which require humidity. The chief disadvantage under which this coast labours, is a violent surf, which makes the landing very dangerous. The form of government is absolute despotism, which operates as a preventive of most of the disorders which are common in the adjoining countries. Africa unfortunately is obliged to look to slavery for its safety. Among the pretended republics, or rather turbulent oligarchies of the Gold Coast, the warlike State of Fantee is the most powerful and the most regularly constituted.*

Inland nations.

The interior is occupied by two powerful nations. The Aminas, who have plenty of gold, extend in a north-western situation to a space of fourteen days journey.† Their

* Rœmer, p. 137, p. 236.

† Oldendorp, Hist. des Missions, p. 277. &c.

language, which has become known by the researches of the Danes, prevails over a great part of the coast.* The Ashantees in the north-east, seem to be the Argurtans of a certain French writer.† A king of this nation in 1744, made a very distant expedition to the north-east, marching twenty-one days through a well wooded country intersected by rivers; fourteen days were employed crossing a sandy desert where no water was found. The Mahometan nation which it was his object to attack, surrounded him with an immense army of cavalry, so that he returned with a slender remnant of his force, bringing along with him a great number of books in the Arabic language, which afterwards came into the hands of the Danes, and probably are now in the royal library of Copenhagen.‡ The learned Mr. Bruce thinks that this country was Degombah, the same which was visited by the sheriff Imhammed, and Timbah, mentioned by Oldendorp, on information derived from negroes. The Timbah nation is called by the Aminas, the Kassiante.

Slave Coast.

The Slave Coast, in the strictest acceptation, includes the States of Coto, Popo, Widah, and Ardra. The maritime of flat country here is broader than that of the Gold coast, and extremely fertile. Poultry are in uncommon abundance, and the air is darkened by flocks of bats like dense clouds. The French had a trading settlement at Widah, or Judah, and the Portuguese sell their tobacco at Port-Novo. The small states of the sea-coast are subject to the king of Dahomey, who by his conquests raised himself from the rank of a small proprietor, to that of a great African monarch. He has only 1940 miles of sea-coast, and though he can bring into the field 8000 men, yet being every where surrounded by enemies, he would soon be expelled from the maritime parts, if he were not supported

Kingdom of Dahomey.

* See Protten's Introduction to the Fantee, or Amina language, published in the Danish language at Copenhagen, 1764.

† Pommegorge, Description de la Nigritie, p. 142.

‡ Rœmer, p. 188.

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by the European forts. His villages are large and populous. Abomey, the capital of his kingdom, is situated at a distance of eighty miles from the coast, and contains 2400 inhabitants. The king has two pleasure-houses at Clamina and Agona, where he most commonly lives. These palaces are only a better sort of cottages, contained within a park more than half a mile broad, surrounded by an earthen wall. In this place there are 800 or 1000 women, armed with muskets or javelins. These light troops form the king's guard, and from them he selects his aides-de-camp and his messengers. The ministers leave their silk robes at the gate of the palace, and approach the throne walking on all fours, and rolling their heads in the dust.

Barbarous Customs.

The ferocity of these kings almost surpasses conception. Mr. Dalzel, the English governor, found the road to the king's cottage strewed with human skulls, and the walls adorned and almost covered with jaw bones.* The king walks in solemn pomp over the bloody heads of vanquished princes or disgraced ministers.† At the festival of the tribes, to which all the subjects bring presents for the king, he drenches the tomb of his forefathers with human blood. Fifty dead bodies are thrown round the royal sepulchre, and fifty heads stuck up on poles. The blood of these victims is presented to the king, who dips his finger into it and licks it.‡ Human blood is mixed with clay, to build temples in honour of deceased monarchs.§ The royal widows kill one another till the new sovereign puts an end to the slaughter. The people, in the midst of a joyous festival, applaud these scenes of horror, and with delight tear the unhappy victims to pieces, yet they abstain from eating their flesh.‖

The Eyeos.

The king of Dahomey is tributary to the king of the Eyeos, a very powerful nation, whose territories are north-

* Dalzel's History of Dahomey, London, 1796.

† Bruns and Zimmermann, Recueil Geograph. III. p. 115.

‡ Norris, Voyage à Dahomey, dans le Magasin des Voyages, V. Berlin, 1792. Isert, Voyages, p. 178.

§ Bruns and Zimmermann, p. 114.

‖ Isert, p. 188.

east from Dahomey, and extend to the banks of a large lake, from which several rivers take their rise, and fall into the Gulf of Guinea. May not this be the lake of Wangara? The Eyeos are considered as conterminous with Nubia; which is certainly an exaggerated statement. The king, whose numberless cavalry forms his chief force, lives 150 miles from the coast. The Eyeos are a warlike people. They have among them extensive cotton manufactures.*

Kingdom of Benin.

East from Dahomey, and south from the Eyeos, lies the kingdom of Benin, the king of which can bring 100,000 men into the field. The river, which the Portuguese call Rio-Formosa is very broad at its mouth, and has been navigated as high as Agathon, one of the chief towns, about forty miles north-east from the sea. The road from Benin to Agathon is much frequented, and lined with very tall, and very strong trees, which afford an abundant shade. The city of Benin on the river of the same name, is surrounded with deep ditches, and there are traces of an earthen wall by which it has been protected. The streets are fifteen feet broad; the houses low, covered with the leaves of the macaw tree, and kept exceedingly clean.—There are no stones in this country, and the soil is so soft that the river detaches several acres at a time. The moveable islands thus formed are the dread of seamen.† The vast palace of the king, on the outside of the city, is defended by walls; it contains some handsome apartments, and fine galleries supported by wooden pillars. The market is not exactly adapted to the taste of Europeans: the leading articles are dog's flesh, of which the negroes are very fond; roasted monkeys, bats, rats, and lizards; it also contains delicious fruits, and goods of all descriptions. The climate is one of the most deadly to the European constitution.—M. Palisot-Beauvois calls it pestilential.‡ Between three

* Idem, p. 160. Snelgrave, p. 56—121. Dalzel, Pommegorge, &c.

† Bosmann, p. 450, &c.

‡ Palisot-Beauvois, Mémoire lu à l'Institute, 15 Nivose, an IX.

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and four thousand slaves were purchased here by the traders.

Laws. Customs.

The inhabitants of Benin have the same laws and customs as the people of Dahomey. The king, who is venerated as a demi-god, is believed to live without aliment, and when he dies, is believed only to lose his former body, in order to revive under another shape. At the festival of yams, he plants a root in a pot of earth in the presence of the whole people. Immediately after it, another pot is presented with a juggling dexterity, containing a root which has begun to bud. This miracle inspires the credulous spectators with the hopes of a good harvest. Human sacrifices form part of the propitiatory worship offered to the avenging or evil genius. The victims, who are generally prisoners of war, when immolated, amidst the dreadful vociferous songs of the whole people, show a most stupid indifference. At the festival of corals, the king and all the grandees dip their coral necklaces in human blood, supplicating the gods to preserve for them this high mark of their dignity.*

Festivals.

Kingdom of Waree, Calabar, &c.

The kingdom of Waree comprehends the flat marshy countries to the south of Benin, where there is a number of rivers, probably branches of the Rio Formosa. After Cape Formosa, the Calabar country begins, which is also intersected by many rivers, among which is the river Bey, or New Calabar, which admits vessels of 300 tons. The sovereign has the title of délémongo, or "the Great Man." The island of Bonny is a great slave market, and, along with Calabar, used to export 14,000 annually. One part of this coast is covered with layers of sea salt.† After the high land of Amboses, which seems to contain volcanoes equalling the Peak of Teneriffe in height, we arrive at the river of Cameroons or Jamoor, the mouth of which is very broad. It has a good harbour, and the water is good and sweet. Here wax, elephants teeth, red wood, and refresh-

River of Cameroons.

* Palisot-Beauvois, Mémoire lu à l'Institute, 15 Nivose, an IX.

† Oldendorp, Hist. des Missions, p. 280.

ments, are to be had at reasonable prices, and the Dutch carry on a great trade with the natives. The river of San-Benito is 110 miles beyond it. From the shore a double range of very high mountains is seen at a distance of thirty or forty miles. About forty miles from the mouth of the river is Cape St. John, which is rather of dangerous navigation, from a sand-bank about a league out in the sea.—This Cape forms, with Cape Esteiras to the south, a bay, in the middle of which is the island of Corisco, which has never been particularly explored. The river of Gaboon to the south of this Cape, in the Pongo country, is only twenty-eight miles from the equator. The approach to these coasts is rendered difficult by the prevailing currents. There are two small islands at the mouth of the river; one called King's Island, because it is the residence of a king; and the other called the Island of Parrots. The negroes along this coast are a bold and hardy race.

River of Gaboon.

The gulf, which is bounded by Cape Formosa on the north-west, and on the south by that of Lopez-Gonsalvo, takes the name of the Gulf of Biafra. It contains the islands of Fernando-Po, St. Thomas's and Prince's Island, which we shall describe in another place.

The nations of these coasts are very little known. The Calbongos live on the San-Benito, and the Biafras on the Cameroons. In the interior, an African has informed us of the Ibbo nation, to which he himself belonged, and which seems to furnish the greatest part of the slaves exported from Benin. He had travelled between six and seven months from his native district to the smiling and fertile valley of Calbari. In every part yams, bananas, pumpkins, and sugar canes, were in abundance: the cocoa tree was rare. There is a town called Timmah, situated on a lake. He had also seen a great river, but does not give any certain account of its direction.* The vague notices of this traveller serve rather to excite than to satisfy the curiosity of geographers.

The Calbongos, the Biafras, and the Ibbos.

* Olauda Esquianos, or Gustavus Vasa the African's Account of his own Adventures.

# BOOK LXVII.

## THE RIVER NIGER AND NIGRITIA.

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HAVING gone over some countries which are imperfectly known, we now come to regions of which we know nothing. We must penetrate, in imagination, these central parts where European travellers have merely touched the outskirts. Not having it in our power to describe it, we proceed to discuss the vague traditions and contradictory reports, which show us that this hitherto inaccessible country contains great rivers, opulent cities, and numerous, nations, which are concealed from our view.

Discussions on the Niger.

In our History of Geography, we give a rapid account of the knowledge obtained, and the conjectures formed, by the Greeks, Romans, and Arabians, concerning these countries. Ptolemy, the best informed of the ancient geographers, and commented on by the most learned of the moderns. M. d'Anville, makes mention of two great rivers, the Ghir, which runs from south-east to north-west, nearly like the Misselad, or Bahr-el-Gazel in our modern maps; the other, the Niger, runs nearly in the direction of the Joliba, from west to east. But in following the literal meaning of Ptolemy, we are not certain that this author thought all that his commentator makes him say. He seems to give the Niger two courses; one westerly to the lake *Nigrites*,

the other easterly to the Libyan Lake, besides different canals of derivation, by one of the most ambiguous words in the Greek language, (στόμα,) a word which may signify the mouth of a river, or a place where two roads separate, or a canal, or a simple bending. Taking advantage of these uncertainties, and applying to the interior the system of M. Gosselin, which contracts Ptolemy's map to two-thirds, some have attempted to prove that the Ghir and the Niger of Ptolemy do not belong at all to Nigritia, but were only small rivers on the southern declivity of Mount Atlas.* The great characteristic mark given by Pliny, to wit, the position of the Niger between the Libyans and the Ethiopians, *i. e.* between the negroes and the Moors, appears to us conclusive against these recent hypotheses. Perhaps it would be sufficient to limit a little the information of Ptolemy, by extending them no farther west than Lake Djibbeh.† Agathemerus, who confounds the Ghir and the Niger with one another, still makes this one of the largest rivers in the world.

Arabian data.

The Arabians indeed furnish us with more numerous particulars than Ptolemy; but the contradictions contained in their accounts render them very difficult of application. "The Nile of the Negroes," says Edrisi, "runs from east to west, and falls into a sea, (or *the* sea,) at a distance of a day's journey west from the island of Oolil. The dwellings of the negroes are along this river, or along another which falls into it."‡ Leo Africanus applies Edrisi's description of the Nile of the negroes to the river Niger. He even expressly says that this river falls into the ocean, but he all along acknowledges that some authors make it run from west to east, and terminate in a great lake.§ Shehabeddin is the only Arabian author who asserts that the Nile of Djenawa does not reach the ocean, but ends its course in the

* Mémoires de M. Latreille.

† Voyez l'Afrique Ancienne, dans notre Atlas complet.

‡ Edrisi de Hartmann, p. 12.

§ Leo Africanus, p. 6.

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deserts.* All of them mention, like Ptolemy, many fresh water lakes which must be formed by rivers.

Applying the name of the Nile of the Negroes to the Misselad, and supposing that both this river and the Niger lose themselves in lakes or in the sands, d'Anville, and, long after him, Rennel, have constructed maps, half traditional and half hypothetical, which are usually followed with more or less modification.

Hypothesis of M. Reichard.

But a very able geographer has proposed an important alteration, which amounts to more than a mere modification. Allowing the Niger and the other rivers the general direction assigned to them by d'Anville and Rennel, he adds an outlet connected with the Gulf of Guinea. "To the west of Wangara," says this author, "the Nile has a southerly course; and the Misselad, after having crossed the lake of Fittree, then that of Semegonda, leaves this last in two leading branches, which encircle Wangara and fall into the Niger, then this last river continues in a south-westerly course, till it terminates in the Gulf of Guinea, where it forms a delta between its western branch, the Rio-Formosa, and the eastern one, Rio-del-Rey."† This opinion he supports by the following train of argument.‡

First argument.

Rennel supposes that all the waters produced by the inundation of the Niger, of the El-Gazel, the Misselad, and other rivers which water the Wangara, are dissipated by evaporation. The principles of natural science will not allow us to admit such a supposition. The Wangara is a fertile populous country, covered with towns. The tropical rains occasion annual inundations. The rivers begin to overflow about the middle of June, they are at the highest in August, and are restored to their usual state in September.§ This is generally understood. When the waters

* Notices et Extraits de MSS. II. p. 156.

† See our General Map of Africa.

‡ Ephemerides Geographicæ of Weimar, v. XII. cah. 2. (Août, 1803.) p. 157, &c. Annales des Voyages, t. V. p. 232, &c.

§ Browne, ch. XVIII. Hartmann. Edrisi Africa, art. Wangara, p. 47, &c. quoted by Reichard.

have subsided, the country must be sufficiently dry for cultivation. Let us allow three months, *i. e.* till the end of December, for complete evaporation, although Edrisi says that the inundation continues no longer than that of the Egyptian Nile. Browne, in his chapter on vegetation, says that in this climate the ground is dry for seven or eight months. The meteorological observations made by this traveller for two years, make the usual heat of these countries in these months 85° of Fahrenheit. The temperature of Wangara must be still warmer. Let us allow that the thermometer in general rises to 90°, and that, in this burning climate, the evaporation of water exposed to the sun will be three Parisian feet in a month. This estimate is certainly not too low, for it allows an evaporation three times as great as takes place in our temperate climate during one of the warmest months of the year.

Mass of water of the Niger.

Then calculating what may be the mass of water which the Nile pours into Wangara, M. Reichard finds for the three months of the inundation, 14,226,969,600,000 cubic feet. "The surface of this country, which Rennel, after Edrisi, estimates at 370 miles in length, by 170 in breadth, is 22,595 broad, or 2260 square miles, equal to 1,182,190,594,000 square feet, the length of a mile being about 22,870 feet. According to this reckoning, the Niger alone would pour into the basin of Wangara a mass of water more than fourteen feet deep. But, says M. Reichard, this is only one of the rivers. On all sides towards Bornoo, from Kookoo, from Baghermi, from Bergoo, from Foor, from Medra, the waters of Africa flow into Wangara. We may reasonably consider these put together as equal to the Niger, for, as their course is shorter, they lose less by evaporation and absorption in the soil than the Niger, which comes from a distance three or four times greater. Taking the quantity of water supplied by these rivers at one half of what calculation would make it, there will be seven billions of cubic inches of water; which will

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make the depth of that which is brought into Wangara more than twenty-one feet. But since only nine feet can be evaporated in three months, more than seven months will be required to dry the surface; which, added to the three months of the inundation, will only allow the inhabitants two months for seed time, growth, and harvest. The expenditure of the water cannot, therefore, be accounted for by evaporation alone."

This first argument of M. Reichard is not perfectly conclusive. His calculations cannot be depended on. The existence of a great lake would explain the whole difficulty. But let us hear his other reasons, which give support to one another.

Second argument.

Edrisi says that the Nile of the negroes surrounds the Wangara the whole year. From this testimony that country has received the figure which we find given to it in our maps. The Niger, which comes from the west, is divided into two below Ghana. The northern arm runs straight east, the southern one forming an elbow, corresponding to the surface of the Wangara, turns round again to the north, and both fall into the lake of Semegonda. This at least is what may be conceived to take place. But is this result just and conformable to the nature of things? Can we suppose a river which is navigable the whole year, and one or two English miles broad, will fall into a lake which has scarcely twenty or twenty-five square miles of area, without making it rise high above its banks. For the Niger alone a lake would be required as large as the sea of Aral. The opinion is still more untenable when we consider that the lake of Semegonda also receives all the rivers which come from Bornoo, Kanga, Begharmeh, Bergoo, and Foor, and particularly the Misselad, which is of great size, and never dried up, and that all these are brought thither by the discharge of the lake Fittree, their point of union. It is only in this way that the communication of the rivers mentioned by Edrisi can be explained. He gives to the Nile, which surrounds Wangara, a general direction to the

west. It must, therefore be the Misselad, and, as Hornemann says that this river flows out of Lake Fittree, the communication of the waters of the Kaagoo with the Lake of Semegonda, alleged by Edrisi, is confirmed. But the last lake being too small to contain all these waters, one of the two branches which issue from it must run west, the other south or south-west, and fall into the true Niger at a great distance from each other. The true Niger, therefore, can only water the western part of Wangara, and then proceed in its course.

Third argument.

The examination of the nature of the country furnishes M. Reichard with the most specious of his arguments.

"The countries of Benin, of Owarah, New Calabar, and Calbongo, are," says he, "the Delta of a great river which comes from a great distance in the north-west."

The accounts collected by Nyendael, Rasmann, Dapper, and the two Barbots, inform us that the Rio Formosa is eight marine miles in width at its exit. Higher up, it is four, and in still higher situations it is sometimes wider, sometimes narrower. It separates into an infinite number of arms, which spread over the whole adjoining country. A communication can be kept up in boats from one arm to another. There is also, in the interior, a passage by water to the Calabar, easily sailed in a canoe. From the Rio Formosa to the west bank of the Cameroons River the coast is very low and marshy, and preserves the same character to a considerable distance in the interior. This whole country forms one immense plain, intersected by large, navigable rivers, such as those of Forçados, Ramos, Dodos, Sangama near Cape Formosa, Non, Oddi, Filana, Saint Nicolas, Meas, Saint Barthelemy, New Calabar, Bandi, Old Calabar, and Del-Rey. This last is seven or eight miles broad at its mouth. It preserves this breadth a considerable way up, and comes from a great distance in the north. All these rivers belong to one principal river; for the Rio-del-Rey coming from the north, and the Rio Formosa from the north-east, the two lines which they follow should intersect one another forty or fifty geographical miles farther north, each having

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a separate course of at least two hundred miles. Then we may reasonably give their course, in a united state, a length of three or four hundred miles. The extent must indeed be almost unexampled, since the Delta, including the projection of Cape Formosa, occupies ninety miles of the seashore, and contains so many branches of rivers. In size it far surpasses the Delta of the Ganges.

Subordinate argument.

The physical circumstances of this Delta furnishes an auxiliary argument. Composed of mud, and destitute of stones, it must have been formed by periodical inundations from one or more great rivers. We know also from James Barbot, and from Grasilhier, who are eye-witnesses, that all the country about New Calabar and Bandi is every year inundated in the months of July, August, and September. The coincidence of the time of overflow with that which takes place in the Wangara and the Foor, is too striking not to produce some presumption that the two countries are connected together by the same river. Lastly, pimento, which is very abundant in Benin, is equally so in the Dar-Kulla, which seems to show that these countries are not separated by any mountain-chain; a circumstance rendered very probable by other concurring reasons.

Observations on the name of the Oolil Island.

To these arguments of M. Reichard, which appear to us to merit the greatest attention, we shall add another, which has certainly some weight. The Arabs speak of an island called *Oolil*, at the mouth of the Nile of the Negroes, as the only country in Nigritia that has salt marshes or pits, and a place from which much salt is exported.* Another writer makes *Oolili* a city. Now, at the mouth of the Old Calabar river there is an island called the Salt Land, which is covered with a layer of sea salt, and the Portuguese charts copied by d'Anville mark a town called Oolil on its west bank. The distances assigned by the Arabs would place the island of Oolil in a great inland lake, but the singular coincidence of the names and of physical cha-

* Hartmann, Edrisi, p. 29, &c.

racters is not the less favourable to the hypothesis of M. Reichard. BOOK LXVII.

At the very time when this hypothesis appeared to be established, an opinion diametrically opposed to it, and the least probable of all that had been advanced, has been again brought forward. It is nearly that which was given by Pliny the naturalist, who considered the Niger as the principal branch of the Nile, allowing, however, that it frequently disappeared under ground. Some of the contradictory testimonies of the ancients and of the Arabians may be ingeniously combined in favour of this opinion,* but the only powerful argument is derived from a recent account of a journey performed by water, from Tombuctoo to Cairo. The journal has come to us in an indirect channel. Mr. Jackson, British consul at Mogadore, collected from the oral declaration of a Moroccan, who had visited Tombuctoo, various particulars, by means of which, he wishes to demonstrate the identity of the Niger with the Nile.† Hypothesis of the identity of the Niger and Nile.

"The Nil-el-Abeed, or Nile of the Negroes," says this writer, "is also called Nil-el-Kebir, or the Great Nile; that of Egypt is called Nil-el-Masr, or Nil-el-Scham, from the Arabic terms for Egypt and Syria. The inhabitants of Tombuctoo and the whole of central Africa maintain that these two rivers communicate together, and even that they are the same river. The Africans are surprised when they hear that the Europeans make them two distinct rivers, experience having taught them otherwise.

"In the year 1780, a society of seventeen negroes of Jinnee went from Tombuctoo, in a canoe, on a commercial speculation. They understood Arabic, and could read the Koran. They exchanged their goods repeatedly in the course of the passage, and in fourteen months arrived at Cairo, having lived on rice and other provisions, which they procured in the different towns which they visited. Their Navigation from Tombuctoo to Cairo.

* See an Article of M. Hoffmann in the Journal de l'Empire.

† Jackson's Account of Morocco, last chapter. Annales des Voyages, XVIII. p. 340, &c.

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report is that there are 1200 towns and cities, containing mosques or towers, between Tombuctoo and Cairo, on the banks of the Nile of Egypt and the Nile of Soodan.

"They stopped occasionally a few days at several towns to transact business, or gratify inclination or curiosity. In three places they found the Nile so shallow, in consequence of numerous canals of irrigation connected with the main branch, that they could not proceed by water, and therefore carried their vessel over land till they found the river deep enough to permit them to proceed by water. They also met with three cataracts, the chief of which was at the western entrance of the Wangara. They carried their boat by land past this cataract, then launched into an immense lake or merja, which could not be seen across. In the night they used a large stone by way of anchor. They kept regular watch, as a precaution against the attacks of crocodiles, elephants, and hippopotami, which abounded in many places. When they arrived at Cairo, they gained the great caravan of the west, (Akkabah-el-Garbie,) then went back with the caravan of Morocco, and from Morocco returned by the caravan of Akka to Tombuctoo, and from that place to Jinnee, where they arrived after an absence of three years and two months."

Objections.

Such is the account of the negro travellers. Were we to adopt it without reflection or question, we should believe the identity of the Nile and Niger to be demonstrated. The powerful reasons taken from Ptolemy's Geography, and from the Arabian authors, for the total distinctness of the two rivers; the conclusions forced on us by the accounts collected by Browne, on the courses of the rivers Misselad and Bahr-Kulla, (accounts confirmed by the information obtained by Mr. Seetzen;) and lastly, the extreme improbability of so long a course to any river as that of the Niger and Nile, united over countries which must differ considerably in elevation;—with some minds, all these arguments would not, perhaps, be sufficient to invalidate the evidence of these unknown negroes, who pretend to have actually seen objects, of which we only presume to form conjectures. Must we,

on such data, overthrow *in toto* the maps of Ptolemy, d'Anville, and Rennel? remove the mountains on the east of Darfoor? make the Misselad and Bahr-Kulla run backward? We certainly do not yet think so. It appears to us, on the contrary, that the very account given by these pretended negro navigators, presents features which deprive it of any power of disturbing our old geographical creed.

First, These negroes were thrice forced to drag their boat along the land, because the Nile had not sufficient depth. Now, the Joliba, or Niger, is known to be a very large river near Tombuctoo. If it joins the Nile, it ought to gain an immense volume of water, and no canals of irrigation could run it dry. Besides, when once dried up, how does it all at once re-acquire its water?

The three cataracts mentioned may justly induce a suspicion of other interruptions in the course of the rivers navigated by the negroes.

Lastly, If this navigation had no insuperable obstacles to encounter, why did not the Soodan merchants prefer it to the laborious plan of accompanying the caravans across frightful and immense deserts? Mr. Jackson himself replies, because the road by land is more convenient and more expeditious.

Probable results.

This account of the negroes seems, therefore, to furnish only these three results: 1. That there are one or more rivers communicating between the Egyptian Nile and the Niger, in the same way as the Cassiquiari, in America, connects the Orinoco with the Amazons, and as in Norway, near Lesso, two rivers running north and south communicate with each other near their sources. The intermediate rivers are probably to the south-west of Darfoor.

2. A mountain chain coming from Afnoo, or from Kashna, joins that of Melli, and forms a large cataract to the west of Wangara; thus the western Soodan forms one or many basins with scarcely any outlet.

3. The existence of very large lakes in the south of Wangara, may induce a belief that the rivers of the central ta-

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ble-land render an outlet by the Gulf of Guinea unnecessary.*

Particulars on Nigritia.

Having exposed, with all the pains and impartiality of which we are capable, the uncertainties which prevail respecting the courses of the rivers of central Africa, we shall endeavour to combine the most precise information contained in the accounts which we possess of the different countries, towns, and nations, of this vast region.

Journey of Mungo Park.

Mungo Park is the first to guide us in penetrating along the banks of the Senegal to reach those of the Niger. His first journey reaches only to Silla, between Sego and Jinnee; but he collected important information. He was the first European who saw the river Joliba, which is also called the Gulbi.† The name Joliba signifies the great water. This river, when seen by the British traveller, had a gentle easterly course, glittered under the reflected beams of the rising sun, and was equal in breadth to the Thames at Westminster.

Country of Bambarra.

He soon came near Sego, then the capital of Bambarra. This city, built on both sides of the river, consists of four quarters, surrounded by high clay walls. The houses are square and flat roofed, made of clay; some two stories high, and generally white-washed. Several mosques are also to be seen. The number of inhabitants is estimated, perhaps rather too high, at 30,000. The king lives on the south bank. The inhabitants sail in canoes, which are formed of two large trees, scooped out, and joined at the two ends like the boats of the Foulahs. Immediately round the city there is a little culture, but the clay walls and rude canoes show the backward state of African civilization.

Country of Ludamar.

Park gives a description of the Moorish kingdom of Ludamar, where he was detained at Benown, and another called Biroo, the capital of which is Walet. To the east of this lies the celebrated kingdom of Tombuctoo. To the

* Voyez notre Carte de l'Afrique septentrionale.

† Abderrahman-Aga, Tripolitan Ambassador, in the Nouv. Museum Allem. III. p. 937.

south of these states are the negro kingdoms of Kaarta and Bambarra.

In Ludamar, Mr. Park learned, by a sheriff who came from Walet with salt and some other provisions, that Houssa was the largest city he had ever seen, though Walet was larger than Tombuctoo. At Silla, some Moorish and negro merchants had informed this traveller that two days' journey to the east was situated the city of Jinnen, or an island in the river; two days' journey beyond this city was found Dibbi, or the Black Lake, which is crossed from west to east. Here the canoes are said to lose sight of land for a whole day. From this lake the river divides into several streams, and ends in two branches which meet at Kabra, the port of Tombuctoo, which is a day's journey to the south of that city. At eleven days distance from Kabra, the river passes to the south of Houssa, which is two days journey from the Joliba. All the natives with whom this traveller conversed seem to have been ignorant of the course of this great river beyond that point, and of its mode of terminating. To the east of Houssa is the kingdom of Cassina. The king of Tombuctoo, whose name was Abu-Abrahima, was considered as rich, and his wives and concubines were dressed in silk. The kingdom of Houssa is of greater importance. To the south of the Niger are the kingdoms, or rather districts, of Gotto, to the west of which, are Baidoo and Maniana; the inhabitants of the latter have the character of being cannibals. Such is the information given by Mr. Park.

With these particulars are naturally connected those of Mr. Jackson, obtained from oral communications, given by some inhabitants of Tombuctoo. Fifteen days journey east from this city is found a vast lake called Bahar Soodan, or the Sea of Soodan, on the banks of which there lives a white nation, which in language imitates, like the English, the whistling of birds, ride saddled horses, and use spurs. Their face, all except the eyes, is covered with a turban, armed with swords, bows, lances, and darts;

Sea of Soodan.

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they fight man to man. Their bodies, and those of their horses, are covered over with amulets. These people have decked vessels, forty cubits in length and eight in breadth, built of boards, which are united by twisted cords. These barks carry from one hundred and fifty to two hundred men, and a burden of twenty tons. They have no sails, and are put in motion by forty oars. These white people sail as far as Tombuctoo. In the year 1793 they extended their navigation to Jinnee, on the west of Tombuctoo; but were not allowed to trade. They are neither Moors nor Arabs, nor Shillooks.*

White people.

According to another passage, these white people, beyond the great lake, is called, by the Arabs, *N'sarrath Christian*, or Christian Nazarites. They are distinguished from a tribe of Jews who live on the frontier of Lemlem or Melly. This account acquires some importance when we compare it with the testimony of Edrisi, who expressly places the Jews in Lemlem,† and which Leo Africanus calls Melly, from the city of Malel.‡ These Jews are very probably travelling merchants, known for a century back, on the slave coast, under the name of Maillys or Mallays;§ for, though circumcised, these merchants neither abstained from wine or other strong liquors. They selected, and killed with their own hands, the animals whose flesh they ate. They came from a country to the north of Guinea, rich in gold, copper, and precious stones.

Jews of Melly.

The Mallays.

Mr. Jackson tells us that the city of Tombuctoo is situated in the midst of a plain, surrounded with sand hills, about twelve miles from the banks of the Nil-el-abeed, or the Nile of the Negroes, and nearly three days' journey from the frontiers of Zahara. It is frequented by all the negro nations, who exchange here the productions of their

Accounts of Tombuctoo.

* Jackson's Morocco, at the end.

† Edrisi. Hartmann, p. 37.

‡ Leo Africanus, p. 641.

§ Desmarchais, ii. p. 273. Snelgrave, p. 80.

country for the manufactures of Europe and Barbary. The last sovereign of Morocco, Muley Ismael, had appointed a Moorish governor at Tombuctoo; but at present the city is dependent on the negro king of Bambarra, whose present residence is at Jinnee, the Ginnéa of Leo Africanus, and the Genni of some other writers. The king has three palaces at Tombuctoo, a place which is said to contain an immense quantity of gold. This city is said to be kept under excellent police regulations; its industrious inhabitants, who are chiefly negroes, are said to be strangers to theft, and emulous to copy the hospitality, elegance, and politeness of the Arabians.

Government.

The government never intermeddles with the different religions professed by the people who frequent Tombuctoo; but the Jews are excluded from it by the commercial jealousy of the Moors.

The government of the city is committed to a divan or council, composed of twelve alemas.* These magistrates, who are learned expounders of the Koran, nominated by the king, remain in office only three years. Mr. Jackson, who wishes to induce the English to engage in the Tombuctoo trade, by the way of Mogadore, says that the library of that city contains Arabic, Hebrew, and Chaldaic manuscripts among which are translations of the Greek and Latin authors.† Other accounts maintain that the Tombuctans make use of characters different from those of the Hebrews and Arabians,‡ which is denied by Mr. Jackson or his Moorish authority.

Library.

Climate.

The climate is celebrated for salubrity, and the human constitution very soon arrives at maturity. "It is said to be a rare thing to see a young man of eighteen who has not several lawful wives or concubine slaves, the Maho-

* Probably an Arabic word, and the same as ulema. See our account of Turkey.

† Annales des Voyages, t. XIV. p. 25.

‡ Proceedings of the African Association, p. 2. 19.

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medan law being here followed, and one who attains the age of twenty, without being married, is not thought respectable."

Productions, animal and vegetable.

The Niger or Joliba overflows its banks when the sun enters the sign of Cancer. This is the rainy season. At Kabra the inundation becomes considerable. This wide and rapid river breeds crocodiles and hippopotami. The lands along the southern bank are covered with forests, where huge elephants lie under the shade of trees of extraordinary size and beauty. The soil round Tombuctoo produces rice, millet, Indian corn, and other grain. In the plains the Arabs of the tribe of Brabesha cultivate wheat and barley. Coffee and indigo grow spontaneously. The latter is in some places cultivated, and produces a fine blue dye, which is employed in dying and printing the cotton goods. These fabrics are made at Jinnee and Tombuctoo, with whimsical figures. They are used as bed-covers, and are much esteemed for the firmness of their texture, and are sold in Morocco at a high price. The breadth of the wove pieces varies from two to three inches, and are sewed together, with thread or silk, so closely and neatly that the interstices are not seen. The cultivators, who are here called *fulah*,* have a great talent for rearing bees; honey and wax are in great abundance, and large quantities are consumed by the inhabitants.

Gold mines.

The gold mines, found to the south of the river, belong to the king, and their produce is deposited in his palace at Tombuctoo. The people employed in working these mines are Bambarra negroes, who become very wealthy, as all the particles of gold under a certain weight (twelve mizans) belong to them. So very rich are these mines, that pieces of gold weighing some ounces are said to be frequently found. It is no wonder then that this precious metal is so little prized at Tombuctoo, and that objects which are of so little value among Europeans, such as salt, tobacco, and worked copper, are here exchanged for their weight in gold.

* See pages 217. 219

The remainder of western Nigritia was, in the time of Edrisi, divided into two kingdoms, that of Tocroor, and that of Gana. In the first of these, where the people lived on *dourra*, milk, and fish, (an evidence of a moderate fertility of territory,) were found the city of Tocroor, then the centre of the trade of Nigritia, also Berissa, and Sala. The capital of the state of Gana, bearing the same name, was situated on a large fresh-water lake, and was built of chalk. It was the Ta-Gana of Ptolemy, and the Cano of Leo Africanus. This was probably a flourishing empire in the fifteenth century, for, according to Barros, the ambassadors of the king of Benin said to John II. king of Portugal, that "the kingdom of Benin was in some measure in a state of vassalage to a powerful prince in the interior, called Ogane, who was venerated as great pontiff."*

Country of Tocroor and Gana.

At present Houssa is mentioned in the situation assigned to Tocroor, and the state of Kashna occupies the place of Gana; but both of them are among the least known countries of Nigritia. With some, Houssa is an immense city; with others, it is the name of a very populous territory, where the economical arts have arrived at high perfection, excellent steel files being in the number of their articles of manufacture.† The kingdom of Kassena, or Kashna, is known to us only from the accounts of the Tripolitans and Fezzanese. This country, bounding with the territories of Bornoo and Fezzan, seems to be properly called Afnoo,‡ and is known by the name of Affano, in the capital of Bornoo.§ The chief city, to which the name of Kashna seems more particularly to belong, is five days' journey to the north of the Niger,‖ on the road from Fezzan to Zampha-

States of Houssa and Kashna.

* Juan de Barros, Asia. Dec. I. liv. 3, ch. 4. Leo Afric. p. 651. Mamolt, III. p. 66.

† Proceedings of the African Association, p. 2. Elucidations, &c. by Major Houghton, p. 25—27.

‡ Niebuhr, dans le Nouv. Muséum Allem. IV. p. 421. Einsiedel distinguishes Kashna from Hafnoo, Cuhn, Voyages en Afrique, III. p. 436—442.

§ Seetzen, Annales des Voyages, XIX. p. 174.

‖ Proceedings of the African Association for 1790.

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ra, another large city, which is also represented as the seat of a sultan. On the way to Kashna is Agades, the chief town of an oasis, inhabited by the Tooaricks. The vine does not grow so well, nor does the camel thrive equally well in the west and south of Kashna. The chief productions of the country are gold dust, cotton, a particular kind of rice called *bishna*, numerous monkeys and paroquets. Dressed goat skins, ox-hides, zibet, and musk are exported.* The surface is extremely mountainous. On this account, in our map of northern Africa, we place the cataracts of the Niger between the kingdoms of Melli and Kashna.

Productions of Kashna.

It is certain that Nigritia is naturally divided into several basins, or table-lands, differing in elevation. According to Leo Africanus, there are inland districts where the cold obliges the inhabitants to use fire for part of the year. "At Gago the vines are unable to stand the cold, while the vicinity of Gana is covered with cotton shrubs, and orange trees."

Eastern Nigritia.

Eastern Nigritia contains two countries which are better known than the rest, Darfoor and Bornoo. The first, which was imperfectly known to Leo and Wansleb, has been visited and described by Mr. Browne. An inhabitant of that country, of the name of Mahomed, whom Mr. Seetzen met at Cairo, has also given some curious information respecting it. The *dgelabee* or merchants, after leaving Cairo, first stop at Sioot, and then cross a wide desert, containing a small number of cultivated *oases*. At the end of five days after leaving Sioot, they reach Khargeh, the capital of the Great Oasis. From this place they take two days to reach Beris, six more to Sheupp, three from thence to Selim, five to Legghyeh, and six to Bir-el-Attroon, and, lastly, other ten days to Darfoor, making in all a journey of thirty-seven days.†

* Einsiedel, p. 440. &c. &c.

† Annales des Voyages, t. XXI.

Darfoor is watered by the river Bahr-Attaba, which is said to flow into the Nile, and is navigated by small craft. This river, according to the map of Mr. Browne, can only fall into the Misselad, as a mountain chain extends along the east side of the country. Darfoor contains iron, and a copper ore which gives an excellent red colour. According to Mr. Browne, the copper is bought near the sources of the Abiad. The quarries yield marble, alabaster, granite, fossil salt, and nitre. It labours, however, under a want both of lime and building stone. According to Mohammed's account, snow falls every year, but melts as soon as it touches the ground. One of the largest mountains of the country is called Marra.

Nature of the country.

The rains begin in the middle of June, and last till the middle of September. The whole aspect of the country is at that time changed, the character of utter sterility being replaced by pleasing verdure. When the rainy season begins, the proprietors of the land go to their fields with such labourers as they are able to collect. They make holes in the ground, at distances of two feet, where they sow the millet seed, and cover it over with their feet, and thus terminate the labours of seed-time. The crop of millet is harvested in the course of two months: wheat requires three, rice grows spontaneously, and so abundantly that it is little valued, though of superior quality. Dourra and millet are greatly cultivated in Darfoor, but wheat is neglected. Dates are abundant, and, like wheat, are used for the preparation of a spirituous liquor. According to Browne the vegetation is not greatly diversified, and is chiefly remarkable for the thorny and hard nature of the wood, consisting of the tamarind, the plane, the sycamore, the *nebbek*, and several others, which are mentioned, and briefly described by this traveller; but the tamarind is the only tree the fruit of which is well worth gathering; for even the date bears a small and tasteless fruit. The tobacco seems to be an indigenous production in some parts.

Climate.

Mr. Browne, who scarcely went out of the capital, represents the animals as few in number, consisting only of wild

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known species. Mohammed says that the mountains and forests abound with game. He mentions different sorts of gazelles, wild boars, buffaloes, and apparently a sort of deer with which we are not acquainted. Darfoor contains the elephant and the rhinoceros, and numerous giraffes, which are called *our*, in the language of the country.

The skins of elephants, rhinoceroses, and hippopotami are used for making whips, which are sold in great numbers at Cairo. Bees and honey are in abundance.

Inhabitants.

The Darfoorians, who ought to be called Foorians, have, according to Mr. Browne's observations, very thick, coarse skins, but not particularly black. They are brawny and muscular. Their eyesight is excellent. There are few blear-eyed persons among them, and none blind. Their teeth are white and durable, being generally entire till a very advanced age. The Darfoor negroes differ in features from those of Guinea; but their hair is generally short and woolly. They are cowardly, dirty, thievish, and

Manners.

deceitful. They use no baths, but apply a greasy paste to their skin. Commerce is conducted by barter, money be-

Customs.

ing unknown. Polygamy is carried to great extravagance, and the intercourse of the sexes subjected to little regulation. Circumcision and excision are practised among them.

Language.

They seem to use the Berber language, but understand Arabic. According to Mohammed all the inhabitants of

Religion.

the country profess the Mahometan faith. They have the Alkoran, and many among them have their children taught to read that work, and to write in Arabic. This language is exclusively used for epistolary correspondence, which, however, is very rare among them. With the exception of the name of the Deity, all the terms used for metaphysical objects, as well as the generality of those which are connected with political offices and arrangements, are borrowed from the Arabic. The government is despotic. The sultan or sovereign engages in trade, lays duties on all the goods, and is furnished annually with a quantity of millet, from every village, which is collected by the slaves. Ac-

Towns.

cording to Browne, there are no more than twelve towns in

the whole of Darfoor, and each of these contains no more than 5000 or 6000 inhabitants. Cobbek, the metropolis, is more than two miles long, but very narrow, and its population does not exceed 6000. Mohammed calls the sultan's place of residence Tandelty, and gives the names of fifty towns.

Shillook country.

A great desert, called Dar-Kab, separates Darfoor from Kordofan. Mohammed mentions a very interesting country to the south-east, the empire of the Shillooks, which lies west from Abyssinia, and twelve days' journey south from Darfoor. Their sultan is one of the most powerful among the negro princes. The territory is very mountainous, and watered by a great number of rivers, among which Mohammed mentions the Bahr-el-Abiad, Bahr-Indry, Bahr-el-Harras, and Bahr-Esrak, all of which take their rise in the country of the Shillooks, and afterwards join the Egyptian Nile. The Bahr-el-Abiad is the great western branch of the Nile, and its origin should be considered as the source of the Nile, which Father Lobo and Mr. Bruce wished to find in Abyssinia. The Shillooks are negroes and idolaters, and go quite naked. Their only arms are the bow, the arrow, and the lance. The Bahr-el-Abiad passes through the middle of their country. The largest mountains are the Djibbel-el-Djinse, and the Djibbel-el-Temmaroo, which are frequently covered with snow. They form apparently a part of the Mountains of the Moon. The Shillooks are constantly at war with the Abyssinians, but maintain commercial relations with the people of Darfoor; and the traders of the two nations often visit one another. By washing the sand of the rivers they obtain gold, which is kept in the quill-tubes of a huge bird, called in Egypt the *sakgar*, and in Darfoor the *doulh*. This bird, which is probably a sort of condor, possesses immense strength, and even attacks and kills asses. A number of giraffes are also found here.

Mountains.

Productions.

Towns.

Mohammed himself had visited this country. The capital city and residence of the sultan is called Bahr-el-Abiad, being situated on the river of that name. He says that it

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is a commercial place, and contains a great number of remarkable buildings, but he is not quite consistent in his accounts.

Another and better informed negro described to M. Seetzen the Dar-el-Abiad as a large hilly country, full of rivers, and inhabited by real savages. The name seems to point it out as the country which gives rise to the Bahr-el-Abiad, and where, in the rainy season, it probably communicates with the rivers which join the Niger.

The information furnished by Mr. Browne applies to a direction somewhat different, viz. the south-west.

The Dar-Koollah.

At a distance of three days journey to the south of Cabbeh, there are copper mines; and seven days journey and a half beyond these is the Bahr-el-Abiad. To the west of this is the river Koollah, the banks of which, according to the information of Mr. Browne, abound with pimento trees. The boats are forced along by poles and two oars each. So large are the trees that one of them may be scooped out into a canoe fit to carry ten people. The natives of Koolla are partly black and partly red or copper coloured. The country is chiefly frequented by the djelaby, or merchants of Bergoo and Darfoor, who come thither to buy slaves, the slightest offence being here punished by the sale of the delinquent to foreign merchants.

The Mobba or Bergoo.

To the west of Darfoor, is a country which the natives call Mobba, the Arabs Bar-sheleh, and the Foorians Dar-Bergoo, known to us from the reports of two natives,* who agree on most of the facts. Mobba is to the west of Darfoor, and to the south of Bornoo. Vara, the capital, is thrice as large as Bulak. The town itself contains many earthen houses, but in the neighbourhood, conical cabins, made of reeds and canes, are the only habitations.

The sultan's seraglio is an immense brick building, and contains the only mosque belonging to the place, which is kept constantly lighted with lamps. The country is all diversified on hill and dale. "There are no rivers properly so called," says one of the native reporters, "but rain torrents,

Contradictory accounts of the rivers.

* Annales des Voyages, XXI. p. 164.

which, when dried up, leave considerable lakes or fens. The largest of these torrents is between Mobba and Bagirmah, and is called Bahr-el-Zafal." The other native says, "that at three days' distance west from the city, there is a large river, running from south to north, broader than the Nile, and, like this last, subject to periodical inundations, and called in the Mobba language Engy," (their word for water.)

Productions.

The Mobba country produces soda, which is exported to Cairo; rock salt of different colours; and another salt not accurately known. Two sorts of iron ore are found in the beds of the torrents, one in the form of sand, the other in that of a stone, and from which knives and needles are manufactured. There are no other metallic substances. Limestone is rare. But this country is covered with trees, among which are different sorts of sycamores, palms, and the *Acacia vera*. Every kind of poultry is found here, as fowls, pigeons, wild geese. There are also many bees, scorpions, and locusts, the last of which are used as food. There are plenty of horses, dogs, cats, buffaloes, and gazelles. The large ponds created by the rain water harbour numbers of crocodiles.

The rainy season lasts seven or eight months. The dry season consequently only four or five. Ice is unknown; snow and hail are very rare. The chief culture is that of dourra and millet. There is neither wheat, barley, nor pulse. Cotton is abundant; rice is grown every where; and the gummy shrubs are frequent.

Inhabitants.

Most of the inhabitants are Mahometan negroes, some of whom have learned to read and write the Arabic language. The children of both sexes are circumcised. The women go unveiled. The arms of these negroes consist of sabres, lances, bows and arrows, and bucklers. The few muskets which they have come from Cairo, as well as lead, gunpowder, and cuirasses. The plague is very rare in this country; but the small-pox produces great ravages; and diseases attached to libidinous conduct are very common.*

* Browne's Journey to Darfoor.

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Baghirmah.

To the west of Mobba, all our accounts agree in placing Baghirmah, a state now dependent on the powerful mussulman emperor of Bornoo, as is shown by the following anecdote, related by Hassan, an inhabitant of Mobba.

Historical anecdote.

The sultan of Baghirmah had married his own sister. An action so contrary to the law could not remain concealed, but came to the knowledge of the sultan of Bornoo, who, in a paroxysm of wrath, ordered him instantly to relinquish that incestuous connection, under the penalty of the vengeance of Allah and the emperor. The sultan of Baghirmah not suffering himself to be intimidated, sent back the sultan's letter, writing on the back for an answer, that the custom of marrying a sister had existed long before the prophet, and that he saw no reason why it should not exist after him." An answer so laconic from a dependent raised the emperor's passion to madness. He immediately ordered the vassal sultan of Mobba to enter the Baghirmah country with an invading force, a commission which the latter prince executed, and having vanquished the rebel king, sent him prisoner to Mobba. Hassan did not know the subsequent fate of that prince; but the Baghirmah country had been for five years attached to the territories of Mobba.

Remarks on the city of Karna.

It is very probable that, at the beginning of the eighteenth century, the sultan of Baghirmah ruled over the adjoining countries, including Bornoo, for his place of residence is called Karna; but according to the accounts collected by Father Sicard, the city of Karneh, situated on a great river communicating with the Nile of Egypt, was the capital of the state of Bornoo.* The river was called Bahr-el-Gazel, and the canal of communication between the Niger and Nile, says Sicard, is Bahr-el-Azurak.

Christian tribes.

Other accounts make the Baghirmah country contain some inhabitants professing the Christian religion,† coincid-

* Nouv. Mém. de la Compagnie de Jésus dans le Levant, II. p. 186.

† Niebuhr, after Abderrahman-Aga. Nouv. Muséum. Allemand, III. p. 981.

ing with a negro tradition, which states, that to the east of Houssa, beyond a great lake, there is a nation of Nazareans. The inhabitants of the country of Audam thus pass for Christians, and are said to have pointed teeth. The same shape of the teeth is common among the Jemjens, who are pagans and cannibals. The Kendil nation has long hair.

Wangara.

The Wangara, or Vankara, a marshy country, surrounded either by different rivers, or the different branches of one great river, and rich in gold dust, is surnamed in Arabic Belad-el-Tiber, or the country of Pure Gold, is still less known to us than the preceding countries. Here Edrisi places among other cities those of Ragbil and Semegunda, on the borders of a fresh water sea, but luckily for those who are fond of disputes, the Arabic term, which is translated sea, also signifies a great river.*

Empire of Bornoo.

We shall conclude our account of Nigritia with a description of the empire of Bornoo, respecting which Mr. Seetzen has collected some interesting information from a native. This state seems at the present moment to comprehend several kingdoms once independent. We have just seen that the princes of Mobba and Baghirmah depend on it. Among other vassal countries, we hear of Phallateh, which is inhabited by a colony of Senegal Foulahs or Fellahs; the Kotkoo, who seem to be the Kookoo of Edrisi; Kanem, in which the city of Matsan seems to correspond to that of Mathan, which at one time was its capital, or rather the residence of a prince who for a very short interval ruled over these countries.† The Bornese pretend even that Fezzan, Afnoo, Kishena, probably Kashna, Darfoor, and Sennaar, acknowledge the ascendancy of their emperor.

Nature of the country

The eastern part of the territory of the empire of Bornoo contains some mountains. About three miles from

* Hartmann's Edrisi, Africa, p. 50—52.

† D'Anville, Hist. de l'Academ. XXVI. p. 69. Leo, p. 656. Cuhn. III. p. 437.

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Rivers.

the capital, there is a river, called Halemm, as broad as the Nile, on which there is a number of vessels with sails and oars formed of planks, fixed with iron nails. Abdallah could not inform M. Seetzen either of the source or the termination of this river, but he assured him that it ran from south to north, and that it overflowed its banks in the rainy season like the Nile. If we consider this account as correct, we must give the river of Bornoo a direction opposite to that given it in our maps. In the towns of Bornoo well water is commonly used, and is said to be of excellent quality.

Minerals.

The soil consists of a soft sand, which renders the shoeing of horses in this country unnecessary, but without irrigation it cannot be made productive. Along the side of the river, black chalk is found, likewise some pyrites and potters' clay. According to the Tripolitan Abderrahman-Aga, the sultan receives from the mining operations immense quantities of gold.* Leo Africanus asserts that, at the court of Bornoo, the stirrups, spurs, dining plates, and even the chains of the hunting horses, were of pure gold.† But the native Abdallah says, that no ore of gold, silver, or copper, has been discovered, though there are some iron mines now worked. These testimonies may, however, be reconciled. The gold, though unknown as a product of Bornoo Proper, may come from Wangarah, one of its dependencies. The merchants of the province of Affanoh bring rock salt, which has a degree of bitterness. A good salt is extracted from the ashes of a thorny plant by lixiviation. A very distant desert produces two varieties of soda, one white, and the other red.

Vegetable kingdom.

The vegetable kingdom is very rich, containing abundance of fruit trees and forests of wild timber. Date palms are in abundance. According to Abdallah, there are no citrons nor pomegranates, though other accounts mention these among the trees of the country. The *shooldeh* sur-

* Nouv. Mus. Allemand, III. p. 386.

† Leo, p. 659.

passes all other trees in height and thickness. Its fruit is not an article of food, but yields an oil which is employed as a medicine.

The country produces grain, but none of the leguminous species cultivated in Egypt. Rice comes up spontaneously in great abundance after rains; for, says Abdallah, there is much rain in that country, from which, and from the action of the cold, men often die! The sugar cane is here unknown. The bitter *Ngoro* nut, perhaps the areca, comes from Kanem and from Affanoh.

Bornoo possesses all the domestic animals of Egypt. The forests contain a great quantity of monkeys. Abdallah told M. Seetzen that women were particularly exposed to annoyance from these animals, on which account they never go through the forests except in large parties. Numerous giraffes browse the leaves and young branches of the trees. The lions inhabit the deserts. The skin of the hippopotamus is used for making whips, and his fat for candles. Tapers are made from wax. The horns of the *glembo*, which seems to be a wild goat, furnish war trumpets. The rivers swarm with crocodiles. Ostrich feathers form an article of trade. The *matzakweh*, called the king of birds on account of the incomparable beauty of his variegated plumage; the *adgunon*, the largest bird with the exception of the ostrich, which, however, is always afraid of it; and, lastly, the *kmilodan*, a carnivorous quadruped stronger than the lion or the tiger, are animals which still remain to be subjected to authentic and scientific examination. Animals.

The locusts fly in numerous swarms: they are of two kinds, one of which is fried with butter in a pot, and used as food. There is abundance of wild honey in the trunks of the trees.

According to the inhabitants of Mobba, the capital is called Akumbo. It has also the name of Birni, in the language of the country. "I have always heard people speak of Cairo and Grand Cairo," says Abdallah, "but it is *harra* (a trifle) in comparison of Bornoo." He says, that a Towns.

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person could not go from one end of it to another in a day. If a child should lose itself in the city, it loses its parents for ever, as it is impossible to find them again." This description is, to a certain extent, confirmed by other testimonies. The Tripolitans allow that Bornoo or Barni has 10,000 houses, and is much larger than the capital of their country.* Bornoo has a great number of gates and thick walls built of stones and mud, and provided with steps in the inside. The mosques are adorned with very high towers. The dwellings of the grandees and the rich are built in a very solid manner of stone, in a similar style to the houses of Cairo, but higher. The great mosque contains the principal school, which Abdallah compared to the academy in the mosque of El-Asher at Cairo; that, besides the Koran, there are several books of science for the use of the numerous scholars who learn here to read, to write, and to calculate. The paper which is wanted is brought from Egypt, Tripoli, and Tunis. The students are supported at the sultan's expense.

Government.

The reigning dynasty, in the time of Leo Africanus, was of the Arab or Berber tribe of Berdoa. The same family seems still in possession of the throne; for, according to Abdallah, "the sultan is not black, but of a deep brown. He never eats bread, but only rice, being persuaded by virtue of an old prophecy, that the use of bread would be the cause of his death." The government is only hereditary in the male line. The sultan keeps four lawful wives, who are natives of Bornoo, and a crowd of female slaves.

Religion.

In the time of Leo, the Bornese, living without any positive religion, or at least without any form of worship, had their wives and children in common.† They now profess the Mahometan religion, and circumcision in both sexes is the universal law. There are also some free Christians, who keep certain holidays, but have no church. The country

* Niebuhr, Nouv. Mus. Allem. p. 981, 1000. Einsiedel, chez Cuhn, III. p. 437.

† Léon, p. 656.

contains no Jews. Negroes and Abyssinian slaves are numerous. A very effectual method is practised for converting them to the Mahometan religion; which is to beat them till they learn to repeat the creed, "There is no God but God, and Mahomet is his prophet." This profession once uttered, concludes the business. Several negro slaves brought from the Banda country have the teeth much pointed; the wounds which they inflict in biting are difficult to heal; and their masters take the precaution of blunting them with a file.

Europeans at Bornoo.

M. de Seetzen was much surprised to learn, that the Sultan of Bornoo had many French slaves, some of whom even preserved their European dress. They have established for him a foundery for brass cannon, which he uses in his wars with the negroes to the south of the empire.—We are almost tempted to conceive a suspicion, that this Sultan follows, in regard to European travellers, the policy of the government of Habesh, which we know puts every possible obstacle in the way of their return to their own country; so that it is not impossible that intelligence may yet be received of Mr. Hornemann.

Trade.

The trade of Bornoo is very active, and always brings to it a multitude of foreign merchants. The chief business is transacted by the Tunisians; but the Tripolitans, the Egyptians, the Fezzanese, and the Affano negroes, bring a large quantity of goods. Finger rings of gold, silver, and yellow copper, are manufactured in Bornoo; also coverlids and woollen stuffs. And here are some lapidaries acquainted with the art of polishing and cutting stones, and engraving seals.(*a*)

(*a*) [According to Major Denham, who is now in Africa, and whose notices respecting Bornoo were forwarded in 1824, this country produces but few vegetables or fruits. He names 36 towns and cities, and estimates the population of the country at 2,000,000. He describes the natives as having large, unmeaning faces, flat negro noses, mouths of great dimensions, good, regular, white teeth, and high foreheads; as being peaceable, good natured, timid, of phlegmatic disposition, temperate, and regular in their habits.—*Quarterly Review for March*, 1825.] AM. ED.

# BOOK LXVIII.

## ON THE INHABITANTS OF NIGRITIA, SENEGAMBIA, AND GUINEA.

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THE numerous black nations on the north of the equator, whose countries we have surveyed, in so far as the present state of our knowledge permitted, present the historian, in the great outline of their manners, with a vast subject of meditation.

Food and drink.

The physical properties of the country perpetuate in all those nations that indolent levity, and childish carelessness, which seem innate qualities of the negro race. Twenty days of work in a year are sufficient, in most of these countries, to secure the crops of rice, millet, maize, yams, and manioc, that are required for his frugal repast. His gross taste gives him every where the readiest resources. The flesh of the elephant, even when full of vermin, does not prove repulsive to his sturdy stomach.* He is fond of the crocodile's eggs, and even their musky flesh. The monkeys are very generally used as food.† Even dead dogs and putrid fish give no disgust. Roasted dogs even figure as an exquisite treat at their great feasts. But the negro rejects sallad, because he will not so far imitate the

* Muller, Descript. de Fetu, p. 163.

† Labat, III. p. 302. Atkins, p. 7. p. 152. Moore, p. 77.

herbivorous animals.* The preparation of thick soups, and hashes, juicy and well seasoned, which compose his cookery, requires very little care. An easy manufacture gives him his palm, or banana wine, and his millet-beer, which form his ordinary drink. Europe furnishes the negroes of the sea coast with those pernicious spirituous liquors which make them pass at once from a state of intoxication to a state of slavery. Little labour is required in providing for their dress. The cotton grows among their feet without culture. From this the females derive the stuffs necessary for their families, and dye them with indigo, a production likewise spontaneous. The negro's cabin costs equally little care. Some trunks of trees, scarcely stripped, or in any way shaped, some branches stripped of their bark, a little straw, or a few palm leaves, are his whole materials; to connect them in the form of a cone, is the amount of the art which he requires. That simple architecture is dictated to him by the climate and the violence of the annual rains. It is only on the Gold Coast, or on the banks of the Niger, that European example has taught the negro, that a flat roof, if solid, may be made proof against rain.

Dwellings.

The towns are only great collections of such cottages. There are no public buildings even among the tribes, which live under a sort of republican government. The most that they ever have is a large cottage, open on all sides, called a *boorree*, for conducting their public deliberations, denominated, from a corruption of a Portuguese term, the *palaver*.† The palaces of their chiefs are only distinguished by the multiplicity of cottages of which they consist.—The furniture of the poorer sort is often confined to two or three calabashes, the rich have some fire-arms to show off; the sovereigns, who adorn their dwellings with human skulls, and jaw-bones, have stone-ware, and carpeting of European manufacture. But these monarchs, whose distinguishing pomp consists in walking in slippers, under the shade of

Towns.

Palaces.

* Isert, p. 209. † Isert. p. 77. Rœmer, p. 179.

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an umbrella, have sometimes a piece of massive gold for a throne.

Want of industry.

Mr. Isert has remarked, as a strong proof of the indolence of the negro, that he has never tamed the elephant, an animal so common in Africa and so capable of becoming the useful and intelligent auxiliary of man. The inhabitants of Begombah, an unknown country in the interior of Guinea, are said to have made some attempts to employ the services of the elephant. The negro in general is not a courageous hunter, nor does he cause his dominion to be felt among the numerous wild animals which share with him his fertile country. He is more active, more skilful, and more successful, in fishing. Both by swimming and by rowing, he braves the stormy waters, and carries home his lines loaded with immense booty. But he quickly relapses into his habitual indolence, and the very abundance of this resource proves an obstacle to the development of his natural talent, for the pursuit of industry.* The existence of this talent is shown in the fabrication of stuffs, as of coverlids, sails for vessels, pottery, tobacco pipes, and wooden utensils, manufactures which are very general among this people. We are informed that even at Bambarra, Tombuctoo, and Bornoo, the art of weaving is carried to considerable perfection. The talent of the negroes is also remarkable in the skill of their blacksmiths and goldsmiths, who, with a few rude instruments, make swords, axes, knives, golden braids, and many other articles. They can also give steel a good temper,† and reduce gold wire to a great degree of fineness.‡ The precious stones are cut among the people of Whidah.§

Manufactures.

All this industry, indeed, is contracted by the paucity of wants, and the best negro artizan never thinks of working more than is requisite for earning his daily subsistence. Strangers to our feelings of avarice and ambition, the Africans consider life as a brief interval, which it is incum-

* Labat, II. p. 334. Isert, p. 71. 206. Adanson, &c. &c.
† Labat, II. p. 304. ‡ Muller, p. 274. § Isert, p. 177.

bent on them to enjoy to the utmost. They wait for sunset to begin the giddy dance, which they keep up the whole night, animated by the hoarse sounds of the ivory trumpet, and the beating of drums, mingled with the cadence of various guitars and harps. Young and old, all take their part in the nightly festivity. From one village the sound of their songs and concerts is passed responsive to another. These pastoral scenes will not surprise those who have read the English verses written by some emancipated negroes, which are far from being deficient in sentiment and fancy. Gaming has charms in the eyes of the African more potent than those of the dance. But the ingenious combinations of the *oori*, more varied than our game of draughts, only interest the women, while the men court the violent mental agitation attending on games of blind chance, with as much keenness as we find prevailing among many young persons of fashion in Europe.

Amusement. Dancing. Play.

The negroes, amidst all the varieties of their colour and conformation, seldom labour under bodily defects. Their health is kept up by a simple style of living, exercise, and perspiration; and among some negro nations, if not all, infants born with any defect are destroyed.* The negroes do not seem to have inherited the privilege of the ancient Macrobians. The length of their lives, at least in Senegambia and at Sierra Leone, is not equal to ours.† Instances of longevity are very common among the negroes transported to the colonies,‡ which must belong to some tribes more favoured by nature. Fevers, diarrhœa, small-pox, leprosy, a variety of syphilis, called the *pian*, and the Guinea worm, are the most common scourges of the life of the negro.

Physical constitution. Diseases.

The thin beard of the negroes partakes of the woolly character of their hair, yet in pruriency of temperament, and vigour of constitution, and fecundity of population,

Virility.

* Muller, Descript. de Fetu, p. 184.

† Adanson, Bosmann, Curry, Observations on the Windward Coast.

‡ Oldendorf, p. 407. Muller, p. 280.

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they excel all other races of mankind; and polygamy is carried to a greater excess among them than in any other part of the world.

Pointed teeth.

There are some nations which give their teeth a pointed form by filing. But Isert asserts that he has seen some negroes whose teeth were naturally so formed. Some among them boast of being cannibals, and, to prove the fact, bite off a piece of flesh from the arm of a bystander.*

Incisions in the skin.

The practice of making incisions in the skin prevails, in various forms and degrees, among all the negro nations which have preserved their primitive character. The Mandingos have vertical cuts over their whole body.† The same sort of mark is found among the Akras, the Watiehs, the Tamboos, the Mokkos, the Eyéos of Guinea,‡ and among the inhabitants of Bornoo, Darfoor, and Mobba,§ the situation and number of these incisions vary. The people of Darfoor are marked in the face and the back, those of Mobba in the neck. The Mokkas mark their bodies on the stomach with figures of trees and foliage. The Calabars mark their foreheads with cuts in a horizontal direction, the Sokkos with two crossed lines. The Subaloas cover their cheeks and the whole body with curved lines, crossing one another.‖ The Mangrees mark themselves under the eyes with a figure resembling the letter V inverted. Some tribes near Sierra Leone have the art of making their skin rise in elevated marks like basso relievos.¶

Circumcision.

Circumcision is detested by the Foulahs, but becomes a religious observance among the Mandingos, who extend it to both sexes,** and is also practised by some negro nations of idolaters, such as the Akras on the Gold Coast, the Dahomeys, the Mokkos, the Wattees, the Calabars, and

* Isert, p. 196. Rœmer, p. 13.

† Schott, in Forster and Sprengel, Beytræge, I. 56.

‡ Oldendorf, I. p. 291.

§ Annales des Voyages, XXI. p. 184.

‖ Isert, p. 233. Oldendorf, loc. citat.

¶ Matthews, p. 118. ** Labat, IV. 350.

the Ibboos.* In Benin the females are mutilated, while the Dahomeys, like the Hottentots, resort to the unseemly practice of producing by artificial means a sort of apron by the elongation of the skin in front of the body.†

Superstition.

Any thing that strikes the irregular imagination of the negro becomes his *fetish*, or the idol of his worship. He adores, and in difficulties consults a tree, a rock, an egg, a fish-bone, a date-stone, or a blade of grass. Some tribes have one *fetish*, which is national and supreme. The following instance of the power of superstition, and the address with which it was turned to account by an enemy, is mentioned in the work of M. Mollien. M. Ribet, within the present century, at the head of twenty-five European soldiers, and 400 Senegal negroes, had, in an act of reprisal, plundered all the Foulah villages on the river side. On arriving at Gaet, a large town, no person appeared to oppose them: the inhabitants were all concealed behind their palisades, and thus entrenched fired on the enemy. Two field pieces, in the mean time, by which M. Ribet was accompanied, made incredible havoc among the Foulahs; but at the moment when he thought victory certain, a bull, which they had kept for the purpose, leaped over the palisades, and furiously rushed upon his men. A divinity descending from heaven could not have produced a more extraordinary effect. The negroes of the Senegal, persuaded that their lives depended on that of the bull, stopped the French soldiers ready to fire at him, exclaiming, that if he were slain, all sorts of misfortunes would overwhelm them. The stratagem was completely successful. The negroes dispersed, and fled in disorder to the vessels, while the twenty-five Europeans, disdaining to run away, fell victims to their bravery. In Whidah a serpent is regarded as the god of war, of trade, of agriculture, and of fertility. It is fed in a species of temple, and attended by an order of priests. Some young women are consecrat-

Worship of serpents.

* Oldendorp, I. p. 297.

† Dalzel's History of Dahomey, p. 91.

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ed to it, whose business it is to please the deity with their wanton dances, and who are in fact a sort of concubines to the priests. Every new king brings rich presents to the serpent.* In Benin a lizard is the object of public worship; in Dahomey a leopard. In the neighbourhood of Cape Mesurado, the offerings of the people are presented to a more beneficent deity, the sun.† Some negroes fashion their fetishes into an imitation of the human form. They seem in general to believe in two ruling principles; one of good, and the other of evil.‡

Funerals.

In their funerals, which are attended with much howling and singing, a very singular piece of superstition prevails. The bearers of the body ask the deceased if he has been poisoned or enchanted, and pretend to receive a reply by a motion of the coffin, which is no doubt produced by one of their boldest jugglers. The person whom the deceased accuses of having killed him by enchantment is at once condemned to be sold for a slave. The interments of princes occasion scenes of a much more deplorable nature. The blood of numerous human victims is shed on the royal tomb. That custom prevails among the Aminas, the Dahomeys, the Beninese, the Ibbos, and perhaps many other nations.§

Government.

Yet despotism is not the only or the chief misfortune of Africa. The states of Benin and Dahomey, the Yolofs and the Foulahs, enjoy at least internal tranquillity under their almost absolute monarchs; while in Bambook, around Sierra Leone, and on the Gold Coast, the principal village chiefs form, in conjunction with an elective monarchy, turbulent and disastrous aristocracies. The authority of each increases in proportion to the quantity of gold and the number of slaves which he possesses, the people of distinction greedily exert themselves to become rich by laying waste the villages of their rivals. Hence those perpetual petty

* Des Marchais, II. p. 180. Oldendorp, p. 328.
† Des Marchais, I. p. 118. ‡ Muller, p. 44. Roemer, p. 42.
§ Oldendorp.

wars which desolate almost all the negro countries, and which have for their leading object, the capture of a number of unfortunate beings who are sold to the Europeans. The laws, preserved only in the memories of the people, punish all disorders with severity; but in a state which is a prey to anarchy, the execution of them is precarious, and the absolute chiefs apply them to the cruel purpose of increasing their stock of slaves. In general the most trifling theft is visited with this doom. Private individuals who sue for a debt, have on the other hand the greatest difficulty to obtain their due right. Pleaders of a bullying and intriguing character display an astonishing degree of art at the *palavers*, or judicial assemblies. A merchant who cannot obtain justice, often pays himself by causing the children or relations of a dishonest debtor to be secretly carried off and sold as slaves.*

Civil laws.

Lawyers.

It would be for the interest of Africa were the great empires of Bornoo, Houssa, and Bambarra consolidated. They might then become the foci of a civilization, at least as far advanced as we find that of Asia. Unfortunately, the state of the country seems destitute of any elements of stability. The changes of the capital of Bornoo, which have created so many uncertainties among geographers, probably arise from the circumstance, that out of a number of hereditary sultans, each master of a single province, sometimes one, sometimes another, attains, by election or by conquest, the exercise of the supreme power. There are two causes, in particular, which contribute to prevent Nigritia from attaining a stable condition. One is the vicinity of the Moors, a restless race, addicted to plunder, and incapable either of founding or establishing an empire;† the other is the vast number of nomadic tribes of Arabs, who, protected by their state of pastoral poverty, defy even the authority of the potent monarchs of Bornoo.‡

Non-existence of great empires.

* Isert, p. 221. Oldendorp, p. 304. Matthews, p. 31.

† Description de Tombuctoo, dans les Annales des Voyages.

‡ Description de Bornoo, ibid.

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Barbarous pride of the princes.

The pride of the petty lords of Africa is equal to their barbarous and disgusting ferocity. While we shudder to see them seated on their thrones of gold, surrounded by human skulls, we must smile on hearing the pompous language of princes, whose largest armies scarcely amount to 10,000 men.

Portrait of Opoccoo.

The Danes have furnished us with a portrait of the king of the Ashantees, whose name is Opoccoo. This monarch was seated on a throne of massive gold, under the shade of an artificial tree, with golden leaves. His body, extremely lean, and inordinately tall, was smeared over with tallow, mixed up with gold dust. A European hat, bound with broad gold lace, covered his head; his loins were encircled with a sash of golden cloth. From his neck down to his feet, cornelians, agates, and lazulites, were crowded in the form of bracelets and chains, and his feet rested on a golden basin. The grandees of the realm lay prostrate on the ground, with their heads covered with dust. A hundred complainers and accused persons were in a similar posture, behind them twenty executioners, with drawn sabres in their hands, waited the royal signal, which generally terminated each cause, by the decapitation of one or other of the parties. The Danish envoy, passing a number of bloody heads, recently separated from the body, approached the throne. The magnificent flaming prince addressed him with the following most gracious questions.—"I would willingly detain thee for some months in my dominions, to give you an idea of my greatness.—Hast thou ever seen any thing to be compared with it?"—"No! lord and king, thou hast no equal in the world!"—"Thou art right, God in heaven does not much surpass me!"—The king drank some English beer from a bottle, which he immediately handed to the Dane; the latter took a little, and excused himself by saying that the liquor would intoxicate him.—"It is not the beer that confounds thee," says Opoccoo, "it is the brightness of my countenance which throws the universe into a state of inebriety."—This same king conquered the brave prince Oorsooeh, chief of the Akims, who slew him-

self. He caused the head of the vanquished prince to be brought to him, decked it with golden bracelets, and, in presence of his generals, directed to him the following speech:—"Behold him laid in the dust, this great monarch, who had no equal in the universe except God and me! He was certainly the third. Oh my brother Oorsooeh, why wouldst thou not acknowledge thyself my inferior? But thou hopedst to find an opportunity of killing me: thou thoughtest that there ought not to be more than one great man in the world. Thy sentiment was not to be blamed; it is one which all mighty kings ought to participate."*

The ferocious actions of these little tyrants are not revolting to a people equally sanguinary as themselves, and who, even after their death, hasten to gratify that thirst for human blood which they consider as inherent in their royal manes. On the death of Freampoong, king of the Akims, that people sacrificed on his tomb, his slaves, to the number of several thousands, together with his prime minister, and 336 of his wives. All these victims were buried alive, their bones being previously broken. For several days the people performed dances, accompanied with solemn songs, round the tomb where these unfortunates suffered lingering and horrible agonies.

Burial of a king.

Neither public nor private happiness can exist where laws and manners so barbarous prevail. Two thirds of the negro population lead lives of hereditary bondage in their own country, or are liable every instant to be reduced to that condition by the order of their masters.—Perhaps it is of little importance to the greater part of these unhappy persons what country they water with their sweat and tears. It is true, indeed, that the sight of so many individuals, sold with the semblance of law, offers to the slave merchants some temptations to carry off free persons by stealth or violence, and some horrid examples of such a practice are adduced. One of these merchants, known

Slavery.

Slave trade.

* Roemer. Relat. de la Côte d'Or.

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by the name of Ben Johnson, had violated a free young woman, and sold her to an English Captain. As he returned with the reward of his villany, other negroes, dispatched by the prince, or some of the heads of the village, attacked him, bound him, and crying "off with the thief," took him to the vessel, and offered him for sale. It was in vain that Ben Johnson appealed to the friendship of the European negro-dealer, reminding him that he was a free man, and his most active hand in procuring slaves. "No matter," says the unfeeling Englishman, "since these people sell you, I purchase you;" and instantly fixed his fetters. In other instances, a horrible avarice dissolves all the ties of kindred. Mothers are seen selling their children at an early age, for a few bushels of rice. One day, a stout young African took his little son to sell him to the Europeans; the latter more cunning, and better acquainted with the language of the foreigners, showed them that a man of the strength and size of his father, was of more value than he, and thus prevailed with them to take him in his stead, though the latter kept calling out, that "no son had a right to sell his father."

Mode of procuring slaves.

Some despots consider the population of their territories as a large stall of cattle, from the sale of which they expect to derive a revenue. The town of Gandiolle was lately called on by the Damel, or king, for a contribution of eighty-three slaves, which, on their refusal to pay, he exacted by force. Gandiolle was transformed into a camp, filled with horse and foot, who flocked to the place for the sake of pillage, and wherever the same legitimate monarch arrived, his presence uniformly brought consternation, desertion, and wretchedness.*

It cannot be denied, that these enormities are purely the offspring of the infamous traffic in negroes. The most dreadful thing is, that the African princes, in order to get possession of an hundred men, often sacrifice a thousand; for, when these despots do not find individuals whom they

* Mollien, Travels in Africa, p. 18.

can condemn to be sold, they regularly hunt down the inhabitants of an entire village, like a flock of deer; some make an armed resistance, others fly to the woods, to the dens of lions and panthers, scarcely so merciless as their own compatriots. Several tracts of country have been successively depopulated by these atrocities.

It is certain that the slaves are carried off against their will, and most frequently in all the agonies of the most poignant affliction. This is not denied: but it is said that they consist of captives who would otherwise be slain, or criminals condemned by courts of justice. The answer to this is, and it is proved beyond all possibility of contradiction, that wars are now undertaken, incessantly, for the express purpose of procuring slaves for the market; and that since the establishment of this traffic, every crime is punished by selling the offender to a dealer;—accusations of witchcraft or adultery are always at hand to insure a supply to the traders on the coast; and if these fail, it is admitted, that by advancing a little brandy or gunpowder to the natives, a whole village may be legally carried off in satisfaction of the debt.

Middle passage.

The necessity of crowding on board of one vessel several hundred slaves, often produces the most horrible scenes. Attacked by pestilential fevers, by famine and death, the slave ship becomes at once an hospital, a prison, and a school of inhumanity and crime. More than one half of the blacks that form the cargo kill themselves or die of disease; sometimes the captain, reduced to a want of provisions, throws them alive into the sea to save the lives of the Europeans. The mariners employed in such a trade acquire a ferocious character, and afterwards stain the soil of Europe with crimes worthy only of degraded Africa.

The following extract from the Bibliotheque Ophthalmique, will give some idea of the horrors of what is called the middle passage: "The Rodeur sailed from Havre on the 24th of January, 1819, for the coast of Africa, to purchase slaves. When under the line, it was perceived that the negroes, who were heaped together in the hold, and

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between decks, had contracted a considerable inflammation in the eyes. They were successively brought on deck, in order that they might breathe a purer air. But it was necessary to discontinue this practice, because they threw themselves into the sea, locked in each other's arms. On the arrival of the ship at Guadaloupe, the crew was in a most deplorable condition. Of the negroes, *thirty-nine had become blind, and were thrown overboard.*"*

Number that perish.

To say nothing of the mental agony implied in the forcible separation of these miserable beings from their friends and their country, it is quite enough to mention, that upon an average, no less than seventeen in the hundred die before they are landed; and that there is a farther loss of thirty-three in the seasoning, arising chiefly from diseases contracted during the voyage. One half of the victims of this trade perish, therefore, in the rude operation of transplanting them; and probably not less than 50,000 men are cut off thus miserably every year, without taking into account the multitudes that are slaughtered in the wars to which this traffic gives occasion, and the numbers that must perish more gradually by being thus deprived of their parents or protectors.

Situation in the West Indies.

Of their situation in the West Indies, few that desire to be informed need now be ignorant. They are driven at work like a team of horses, or a yoke of oxen, by the terror of the whip. No breathing time or pause of languor is allowed, they must work as cattle, draw altogether, and keep time exactly, in all the movements which their drivers enjoin. Of the infelicity of this condition, some estimate may be formed, from the precautions that are necessary to withhold them from suicide and from insurrections, which no precaution can ever long avert.†

Commencement of the traffic.

The exportation of slaves from Africa to the New World seems to have begun as early as the year 1503, when a few slaves were sent from the Portuguese settle-

* Bibliotheque Ophthalmique, Nov. 1819.

† Edinburgh Review. Vol. IV. p. 478, 479.

ments in Africa into the Spanish colonies in America. In 1511 it was greatly enlarged by Ferdinand the Fifth of Spain; and the benevolent Bartholomew de las Casas, blinded by compassion for the poor American Indians, proposed to the government of Spain, then administered by Cardinal Ximenes, during the minority of Charles the Fifth, the establishment of a regular commerce in the persons of the native Africans. "The Cardinal, however, with a foresight, a benevolence, and a justice, which will always do honour to his memory, rejected the proposal; not only judging it to be unlawful to consign innocent people to slavery at all, but to be very inconsistent to deliver the inhabitants of one country from a state of misery by consigning it to those of another. Ximenes, therefore, may be considered as one of the first great friends of the Africans after the partial beginning of the trade."*

Exertions of the Quakers.

From that period to the first combination for its abolition,—from the truly great Cardinal Ximenes, to the illustrious ministers Pitt and Fox, there were never wanting voices to declare its iniquity; but it was not till the year 1727, and still more strongly in the year 1758, that the Quakers in England, at their yearly meeting, and in their collective character, fervently warned all their members to avoid being in any way concerned in this unrighteous commerce. In the yearly meeting of 1761, they proceeded to exclude from their society such as should be found directly concerned in this practice; and, in 1763, declared it to be criminal to aid and abet the trade in any manner, directly or indirectly. From this time there appears to have been an increasing zeal on this subject among the Friends, so as to impel the Society to step out of its ordinary course in behalf of their injured fellow men. Accordingly, in the month of June, 1783, the Friends, collectively, petitioned the House of Commons against the continuance of this traffic; and, afterwards, both collect-

* Edinburgh Review, Vol. XII. p. 359.

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ively and individually, exerted themselves by the press, by private correspondence, and by personal journies, to enlighten the minds of men concerning it, especially those of the rising generation. Indeed, by the frequent intercommunion of the Missionary Quakers from England to America, and America to England, the Quakers had earlier and greater opportunities, than any other body of men in Great Britain, of becoming acquainted with its horrors; while, from their religious principles, they were likely to be the first in becoming uneasy under the sense of its injustice.

The public efforts of Mr. Wilberforce, Mr. Fox, Mr. Pitt, and of other senators,* the prodigious and persevering labours of Mr. Clarkson, the writings and exertions of the learned and courageous Granville Sharp, backed by the almost unanimous voice of the British public, after a struggle of nearly fifty years, received their final reward in the legal abolition of the trade relative to the British empire—a legislative measure which constitutes the glory of the administration of Mr. Fox and Lord Grenville. The act for this purpose received the royal assent on the 25th of March, 1807.

Abolition.

United States.

On the 2d of March of that same year, the slave trade was abolished in the United States, and by a subsequent act, it was declared a capital crime to engage in it.

In 1814, Denmark followed the example of Britain.

Treaty with Spain.

In the same year, the king of Spain engaged by treaty† to prohibit his subjects from carrying on the slave trade, for the purpose of supplying any island or possessions, excepting those appertaining to Spain; and to prevent, by effectual regulations, the protection of the Spanish flag being given to foreigners who might engage in this traffic; and, in 1817, he further engaged, not to carry on the trade in slaves to the northward of the line; with an additional regulation, that the slave

* Edinburgh Review, Vol. XII. p. 360.

† Quarterly Review, No. 51, p. 59.

trade should be abolished throughout the entire dominions of Spain, on the 30th day of May, 1820; and that from and after that period, it should not be lawful for any of the subjects of the crown of Spain, to purchase slaves, or to carry on the slave-trade, on any part of the coast of Africa, upon any pretext, or in any manner whatever; in consideration of his Britannic Majesty engaging to pay the sum of four hundred thousand pounds Sterling, as a compensation for losses sustained by his subjects engaged in this traffic. It must be allowed that his Catholic Majesty appears to have taken his humanity to no bad market.

Treaty with the Netherlands.

In the same year, the King of the Netherlands also agreed to abolish the slave trade; but it was not until 1818 that he entered into a convention with the King of Great Britain, for the purpose of preventing their respective flags from being made use of as a protection to this nefarious traffic by the people of other countries. In this, he engages to prohibit his subjects "in the most decisive manner, and especially by penal law the most formal, from taking any part in the said iniquitous trade;" and the more effectually to put a stop to it, the two parties agree to a mutual right of search of their respective merchant ships, within certain limits, by ships of war of the two nations, on good grounds of suspicion that such merchant ships are engaged in the trade; and in the event of any slaves being actually found on board, the ship so engaged to be seized and brought to trial before a mixed court of justice, to be composed of an equal number of members of each nation.

Treaty with Portugal.

In the year 1815, his Faithful Majesty of Portugal likewise brought his humanity to market, and agreed to abolish the slave trade to the northward of the equinoctial line, in consideration of the sum of £300,000 being paid to him by England; and a remission of the residue of a loan to Portugal of £600,000. And in July, 1817, a further treaty was made, similar to that with the King of the Netherlands, agreeing to a mutual search of merchant

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vessels; to the establishment of two "mixed courts," one to be held on the coast of Africa, and one in the Brazils.

Courts of mixed commission.

These courts are composed of a judge and an arbiter, named by each contracting party, who are to hear and decide, without appeal, in all cases of capture of slave ships brought before them; but such is the defective nature of the constitution, and such the practices of the courts of mixed commission, and the evasions of the treaties by the slave dealers, that the efforts of the officers, who are zealously and honestly bent on performing their duty, are often rendered completely nugatory, and they themselves placed in the most embarrassing situations.*

French slave trade.

In 1815, France professed to abolish the slave trade; but the laws enacted for this purpose are so lax and indulgent that they are any thing but efficacious:—they merely condemn the ship and cargo to confiscation; but such are the profits of one successful voyage, that they will afford an indemnification for the loss of several penalties. The French oppose the only effectual means of checking the trade—(short of declaring it piracy)—a reciprocal right of search.

Present state of the slave trade.

During the war with France, when England engrossed almost the whole commerce of the world, and exercised the right of search upon all suspected vessels, the slave trade had nearly ceased on a great part of the coast; but, since the conclusion of the late war, the papers laid on the table of both Houses of Parliament, too clearly demonstrate that its atrocities have greatly increased. It was undoubtedly to be expected, that when England had withdrawn herself from this odious traffic, the most afflicting branch of which, (the middle passage,) she had previously mitigated by salutary regulations, the avaricious and unprincipled of all nations would rush in to fill up the void which she had made; but after the sovereign powers of Europe had, by their plenipotentiaries, solemnly declared the slave trade to be "the degradation of Europe, and the scourge of humanity;" when, in consequence of

* Quarterly Review, No. LI. p. 60—62.

this unanimous reprobation, it had been settled by solemn treaties that, at the expiration of the indulgence granted to Spain and Portugal, to trade for a certain limited time, and within a limited space, it should wholly cease, it could hardly be anticipated that those very powers, in open violation of treaties, should be found, not only giving all possible encouragement to their own subjects, but by allowing foreigners to fit out in their own ports, and to assume their own flags, the more conveniently to carry on this detestable traffic, with all the aggravated horrors of which it is capable.

Although France has a squadron on the western coast of Africa, for the avowed purpose of preventing the trade, it is notorious that the slave vessels are scarcely incommoded by her cruizers; and the French officers, if they do not encourage, at least connive at, the numerous slave vessels that swarm upon the coast. In consequence of this, the trade, though proscribed by the nations of Europe, so far from being abolished, or even limited, is greatly extended, inflicting increasing misery not only upon its immediate victims, but upon the whole of this unhappy continent, and a considerable portion of the New World. So long, indeed, as the monopoly of the markets of Europe is secured to the produce raised by slaves, it will be in vain to expect the total and *bona fide* abolition of this traffic.—Free labour is at present so high in the West Indies, as to hold out an overwhelming temptation to import slaves; and when such is the case, it is too much to trust to registry laws, and such devices, to prevent their importation. On this point, the opinion of Bryan Edwards is deserving of serious attention. "Whether," says he, "it be possible for any nation in Europe, singly considered, to prevent its subjects from procuring slaves from Africa, so long as Africa shall continue to sell, is a point on which I have many doubts; but *none* concerning the conveying the slaves so purchased *into every island in the West Indies, in spite of the maritime force of all Europe.* No man who is acquainted with the extent of the uninhabited coast of the larger of these

Slave and free labour.

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islands, the facility of landing in every part of them, the prevailing winds, and the numerous creeks and harbours in all the neighbouring dominions of foreign powers, (so conveniently situated for contraband traffic,) can hesitate a moment to pronounce, that an attempt to prevent the introduction of slaves into our West India colonies, would be like that of chaining the winds, or giving laws to the ocean."* There is, in fact, but one way effectually to put down West India slavery, and that is, to allow the sugar and other colonial products, raised by comparatively cheap free labour in the East Indies, to come into competition, with that raised by slaves in the West Indies. When this is done, the latter will be driven from the field; and there will be no farther motive to tear the poor Africans from their native soil.†

Present state of colonial bondage.

With regard to the state of colonial bondage, the progress of general improvement is exceedingly tardy.‡ Fifteen years have elapsed since the abolition of the slave trade was enacted by the British Parliament. But during that long period no effective measures have been adopted either by the Imperial Legislature, or by the Colonial Assemblies, for ameliorating the condition of the slave, or paving the way to his future emancipation. In many of the colonies, voluntary manumissions by the master still continue to be loaded with heavy impost; and this cruel tax upon private benevolence prevails even in colonies where the crown is the sole legislator. In all, the slave continues absolutely inadmissible as a witness in any cause, whether civil or criminal, which concerns persons of free condition; and even in questions affecting his own personal freedom, and that of his posterity for ever, the *onus* still rests on him to prove that he is free, and not, as in all justice it ought to do, upon the person denying his freedom, to prove that he is a slave. In none, is the marriage of the slave made legal, or guarded by any legal sanctions; and, with

* Sixteenth Report of the African Institution, p. 44, 45.

† History of the West Indies, vol. II. p. 136.

‡ Edin. Review, No. 75. Article East and West India Sugars.

partial exceptions, his instruction in Christianity is left to the fortuitous efforts of voluntary missionaries.

Disposition of the negroes for civilization.

The negro race, even supposing it to be inferior in intellectual capacity to the Europeans, the Arabians, and Hindoos, unquestionably possess the requisite faculties for appreciating and adopting our laws and institutions. Notwithstanding the horrible picture which we have drawn of the actual state of Africa, the negro is not a stranger to the sentiments which honour and exalt human nature. Though we sometimes find parents selling their children, the ties of parental tenderness are in general as powerful as they can well be, in a country in which polygamy is practised. "Strike me, but say no harm of my mother," is a sentence familiar among the negroes. A Danish governor, on the Gold Coast, presented with his liberty a young negro who wished to sell himself in order to purchase his father's freedom. Friendship has had its heroes in Guinea as it had in the country of Pylades. Proofs of generous gratitude have also been displayed. Not long ago, a French negro having become an opulent merchant, gave an annuity to his old master, who had become unfortunate. There are some colonists who, like the ancient eastern patriarchs, live amidst a race of slaves as in the bosom of a family united by an inviolate attachment.

In Senegambia the inhabitants of each village have their slaves assembled in a collection of huts, close to one another, and which is called a rumbdé. They choose a chief from among themselves, and if his children are worthy of the distinction, they succeed to the situation after his death. These slaves cultivate the plantations of their masters, and accompany them to carry their burdens when they travel. They are never sold when they have attained an advanced age, or when they are born in the country. Any departure from this practice would issue in the desertion of the whole rumbdé, but the slave who conducts himself improperly, is delivered up by his comrades to their master to be sold.*

* Mollien, Travels in Africa, p. 138.

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The finest feature in the negro character is heroic fidelity to a just master, and even to a severe one, of which Mollien gives a remarkable instance in the story of Quagieb, a negro inspector.

Negro character.

The negroes, as well as the Foulahs and other inhabitants of the different villages in Senegambia, practise hospitality in the kindest and most delicate manner; the whole exertions of the family seem devoted to console the fatigues and privations of a stranger; a separate hut, food, forage for his beast of burden, and personal service, are readily afforded, with apologies for defects, and often without the expectation of any return. The ferocious and perfidious conduct of a great many individuals in the different African nations and tribes, though in some communities more marked than in others, only serve to illustrate, by contrast, virtues which are of frequent appearance. The traveller Park gives an instance of kindness and hospitality experienced by himself in the kingdom of Bambarra, which, for tenderness and simplicity, approaches almost to the stories of romance.* The negroes are invariably found much better men than the Moors. When M. Mollien was at the African village of Sanai, in the interior, though the people were at war with the Foulahs, a caravan of Serracolets arrived, and the merchants of the two nations traded freely and securely, and were not even subjected to the least molestation or inconvenience from search. The two governments, relying on the probity of the merchants, agreed to protect them, and not a single instance occurred of a caravan having been pillaged by either of the armies.†

* Park's Travels, vol. I. p. 193. † Mollien, Travels in Africa, p. 138.

# BOOK LXIX.

## AFRICA.

*Continuation of the description of Africa.—General and particular description of Congo or Southern Guinea, and of some adjoining states.*



In savage, unlettered regions, the caprice of the traveller, or the pedantry of geographers, occasionally invents new names or supersedes those generally received. One denomination is for the most part as arbitrary as the other, and the choice to be made between the old and the new does not merit much discussion. The coast of western Africa, included between cape Lopez de Gonsalvo and cape Negro, is in commerce known under the general name of the *coast of Angola.** It is the *western Ethiopia* of several French and Italian authors.† It is part of the *lower Ethiopia* of the Portuguese, a great division of Africa which commenced near the fort of Mina, on the north side of the equator.‡ The best geographers of the present day name it *Lower Guinea,* or *Southern Guinea,* to distinguish it from that which is properly so called, and for distinction, *Upper Guinea.*§ It would nevertheless appear more natural to give to this region the name of Congo, a kingdom under the government of which it has for some time been wholly included, and the language of which appears to be the source of all the idioms that are there spoken.

Diversity of names.

Situated, like Guinea, in the torrid zone, but to the south of the equator, Congo enjoys the same climate as those countries which we have described in the two preceding books,

* De Grandpré, Voyage à la côte Occidentale de l'Afrique, Introd. p. 13.

† Cavazzi and Labat, Relation Historique, etc. Paris, 1732.

‡ Marmol, Afrique, III. 90. § Bruns, Afrika, IV. 9.

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Climate and temperature.

with this difference only, that the seasons appear in opposite months. Respecting the seasons, there can only, in strictness, be distinguished the two extremes of dry and rainy. In general, from the period of our vernal equinox until the end of September, no rain falls; but the winds from the south and south-east temper the atmosphere,* and the heat, although intense, particularly in clear days, is nevertheless supportable. During foggy weather, which is not uncommon, the humidity of the air relaxes the fibres, oppresses respiration, and from the slightest exercise violent perspirations are excited, which undermine the health of strangers, and oblige them either to dry themselves by the fire, or to change their clothes. During the other half of the year the sun is less an orb of light than a burning furnace; his perpendicular rays would dry up the sources of life, and render the soil completely barren, did not bountiful nature furnish a remedy in the coolness of the nights, which are equal to the days in length;—in the dews of evening and morning, always abundant at this period. The air is farther cooled by the rapid torrents which furrow the sides of the hills, and by the numerous rivers which water the plains: we may also add the effect of the winds impregnated with humid vapours, which, during this season, blow periodically from the north-west, namely, from the Gulf of Guinea, and collect, among the mountains of the interior, immense masses of vapour in the form of clouds. From the beginning of October these reservoirs of water pour upon the country frequent rains, accompanied by storms of thunder and wind, which do not cease till the month of April.† The soil, heated to a considerable depth, absorbs this water with avidity—nature revives and assumes a smiling aspect—vegetation is developed with an astonishing rapidity—the fields are covered with a fresh verdure—the trees push forth their buds—the odour of springing flowers perfumes the atmosphere.‡ There are, neverthe-

* Lopez, Relazione di Congo, p. 7. (Edition of 1591, Rome.)

† Proyart, History of Loango, etc. Germ. Transl. of Meiners. p. 1.

‡ Labat. Relation Historique. I. 104.

less, in this as in other countries, exceptions to the rule: the rains sometimes do not come on until after the usual period, or even fail altogether; during the months of winter also there is occasionally drought. At all times the stagnant waters which remain after the rains, fill the air with mephitic exhalations, and render a residence near the coast dangerous to Europeans.

Seasons.

The inhabitants of Congo divide the year into six periods. The spring, *massanza*, begins with the rains of October, which go on increasing until the month of January. Then follows the *n'sasou;* it is the season of the first harvest and of the second sowing, the produce of which is collected in April. The rains which, since the month of January, had been only passing showers, recommence during the month of March, and continue, though slight, until the middle of May. It is into this interval that the *ecundi* and the *guitombo* fall. The *guibsoo* and the *quimbangala* constitute the latter end of autumn and the winter; this last marked by a destructive drought, which kills the leaves of the trees by depriving them of sap, destroys the herbage, and strips the country of all its beauty.

The correspondence of these with our climate, and the more modern division of Captain Tuckey, will be readily understood from the following Table.

*Names and duration of the African Seasons.*

| | | CAPTAIN TUCKEY. | | THE AUTHOR. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Rainy. | *Mallola Mantily*, | Sept. 22 to Oct. 15 | 1. *Massanza.* |
| 2. | Rainy. | *Voolaza Mansansy*, | Oct. Nov. Dec. Jan. | |
| 3. | Rainy. | *Voolaza Chintomba*, | Jan. Feb. March 22 | 2. *N'Sassou.* |
| 4. | Dry or Winter. | *Gondy Assivoo.* | March, April, . . . | 3. *Ecundi.* |
| | | | April, May, . . . | 4. *Guitombo.* |
| | | | May, June, July . . | 5. *Guibsoo.* |
| | | | July, Aug. Sept. 22 . | 6. *Quimbangala.* |

Mountains. Rivers.

In commencing an account of the physical geography of Congo, we immediately perceive that the two principal features are deficient, since as little is known of the direction of

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the chains of mountains as of the origin and the course of its rivers. The source of the greater number of the latter is from a plateau of table land, or from a chain of mountains generally distant from the coast at least from one hundred and fifty to two hundred leagues. But this chain appears to open itself in front of two great streams which proceed from the interior of the continent, and of which the origin is unknown. The river *Coanza*, although the least considerable, is more than a league wide at its mouth; it rolls along its muddy waters with such irresistible force, that the sea is coloured by it to the distance of three or four leagues in breadth. It is navigable as far as the city of Masangano, which is at the distance of forty leagues within land; its great cataracts are sixty leagues farther. It appears to proceed from the south-east. The river *Congo*, called *Zaïre*, or *Zahire*, by the natives, is three leagues wide at its mouth, and empties itself into the sea with so much impetuosity, that no depth can be there taken by the sounding line, on account of the violence of the current. The force of this current is felt at a distance of four leagues at sea, and some effect is even perceptible at twelve leagues; the water at that distance not only retains a blackish tint, but small floating islands of bamboo, hurried down into the ocean, surround the navigator, and even impede the passage of vessels.* The cataracts of this river, situated at a distance of one hundred and twenty leagues within land, have a more sublime appearance than those of the Nile.

The Coanza.

The Zaïre.

This great river undoubtedly arises at a very great distance; but is it reasonable to suppose that it is the same as the Niger or the Joliba? This conjecture, offered by M. de Seetzen more than ten years ago,† has been revived by the unfortunate Mungo Park,‡ and adopted as the basis for a new English expedition, destined to complete the discovery

* Archibald Dalzel, Nautical Instructions respecting the coast of Africa.

† Correspondance, Géog. et Astron. de M. Zach, V. 260. (Année 1802.) Comp. VI. 224, where M. Seetzen appears to have abandoned his idea.

‡ Mungo Park's last Journal.

of the Niger. We shall sketch briefly the arguments by which we refuted this hypothesis at the time it was advanced. My opinion has been but too unhappily confirmed. The English expedition was unable to proceed more than an hundred and twenty miles beyond the first cataracts of the Congo, in a south-east direction. The Portuguese have penetrated farther than this. My friends, Captain Tuckey, and M. Smith the Norwegian botanist, both perished, the victims of an enterprize from which I had dissuaded them by private letters, and by articles in the public journals.

Hypothesis respecting the Zaïre.

Wangara is a country extremely low; it is a marsh, and sometimes a lake. The interior of Congo is, on the contrary, mountainous, and very high. How can the Niger, issuing from Wangara, find a sufficient declivity towards those regions from whence the Zaïre flows? Supposing that it directs its course, on leaving Wangara, to the south-east, it will very probably fall in with the river Camarones, or with those of Benin and Calabar, which, if one may judge by their mouths, ought to be immense rivers, and consequently derive their origin from a considerable distance within the interior.* These are the reasons opposed to the identity of the Niger with the Zaïre. Moreover, this last receives its greatest known stream from the south-east, under the name of *Coanga*, and it owes the abundance of its waters, according to the reports of the natives, to a considerable lake imperfectly known, and which they call *Aquilonda*. It may, perhaps, form a part of an entire system of lakes, similar to the lakes of Canada, and which may probably even include that of Maravi.

Mineral productions.

The soil, generally rich and fertile, rewards amply the labours of the husbandman. Nevertheless, the land along the coast, being either too sandy or too marshy, is unfavourable to cultivation. Sands also compose all the mountains of Loango, and are spread over the whole surface of Sogno, where, however, they cover a good soil. Among the

* Reichard, in the Correspondence of Zach, V. p. 409.

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other constituent parts of the soil of lower Guinea, there is an excellent argillaceous earth,* entire mountains of oriental granite, porphyry, jasper, various kinds of marble, and even, according to Lopez, the hyacinth.† There are also found aerolites, called in the language of the country *targia*.‡ Limestone, which is wanting, except above the cataracts of the Zaïre,§ is supplied by shells found in great quantities along the sea shore. Loango abounds in salt: it is obtained in shallows along the coast, from a spontaneous evaporation of the water; the negroes also prepare it by boiling.‖ The kingdom of Angola contains salt pits, from which are extracted pieces of salt two feet in length and from five to six inches in breadth. The salt sold in the markets by the name of *guisama* or *khissama* stone, is used as a medicine. According to Battel,¶ it is a variety of rock salt, beds of which, three feet deep, extend over a considerable part of the province of Demba.

Metals.

The mines of Loango and Benguela furnish excellent iron.** Nearly all the mountains of Guinea are ferruginous; but the natives do not understand the mode of extracting the metal, and the Europeans, in this respect, encourage their indolence. In *Angola*, iron ore is found dissolved in the water of the river. With a view of arresting it, the negroes place in the river bundles of straw and dried vegetables, to which the metallic particles attach themselves.†† According to Battel, Lopez, and Grandpré, copper and silver abound in Angola, and particularly in the kingdom of Mayomba, where the metal is found near the surface.‡‡ There are also several mines of copper in Anziko, and in the mountains to the north of the river Zaïre: near the great cataract it is extracted of a bright yellow.§§ Nothing, however, attests the presence of gold;

* Labat, Rel. II. p. 63. † Lopez. I. c. p. 42.

‡ Labat, I. p. 71. § Tuckey, 353, 483.

‖ Zucchelli, Voyage and Mission, Germ. Transl. p. 153—324. Proyart, p. 97.

¶ Purchas Collection, II. p. 978.

** Labat, I. p. 27—83. II. p. 59. Zucchelli, p. 280. †† Labat, I. p. 71.

‡‡ Purchas, p. 978. Lopez, p. 23. De Grandpré, I. p. 38.

§§ Cavazzi and Labat. I. p. 35.

and every thing that has been said concerning the mines of the Portuguese colony of Benguela is mere conjecture. BOOK LXIX.

If the riches of the mineral kingdom are less brilliant than they have been represented by former travellers, it is not so with the productions of the vegetable kingdom. In the valley of the Zaïre alone, professor Smith discovered 12 genera, and 250 species, of plants *absolutely new;* besides, other 10 genera, and 250 species, which are only found in Congo, or countries adjacent.* Nature here, all life and activity, presents to the eye a luxuriance which no description can exceed. The downs are enamelled with flowers of every hue. The fields and woods are decked with lilies whiter than snow; in every direction there are entire groves of tulips of the most lively colours, intermixed with the tube-rose and hyacinth. The rose and jasmine, the ornaments of our gardens, would, in that region, require the aid of watering, which the European, either attached to commerce, or given up to indolence, altogether neglects. Vegetables.

Among the alimentary plants, is the *mafringa* or *masanga*, a species of millet, highly pleasant both in taste and smell, the ears of which are a foot long, and weigh from two to three pounds. The Holcus, of every variety, grows without culture.† The *luno* or *luco*, probably the *test* of Abyssinia,‡ forms a very white and pleasant bread, as good as that made of wheat;—it is the common food of Congo. The ears are triangular, and the grains of an iron-grey colour, marked with a black spot; they are not larger than those of mustard. The seed was brought from the environs of the Nile, shortly before the time of Lopez.§ The culture of European wheat has been tried in vain. Its over-luxuriant stalks cover a large space of ground, but continue barren. M. de Grandpré,‖ however, witnessed the growth of ears which contained fifty-two grains. The maize, *mazza manputo*, introduced by the Portuguese, is used for Alimentary Plants.

* Tuckey's Narrative, p. 485. † Battel, p. 985.
‡ Ehrmann, Collection des Voyages, XIII. p. 172.
§ Lopez. p. 40. ‖ De Grandpré, I. p. 14.

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fattening pigs. It affords two or three crops. Buckwheat affords two crops; it bears drought better than other corn,* and its stalks rise from six to ten feet. Rice is abundant, but not esteemed. All the pot-herbs of Europe, such as the turnip, the radish, lettuce, spinage, the cabbage, gourd, cucumber, melon, and fennel, thrive well, and even attain a greater degree of perfection than on their native soil. The potato, called by the negroes *bala-puto*, or Portuguese-root, was brought from America, and has a higher flavour than in Europe. The American manihot, or cassava, whose root is used instead of bread, is also cultivated: as likewise the pistachio-nut, particularly in Loango: the yam; the *tamba* and the *chiousa*, which are a species of bread-fruit. The *incouba*, or pea of Angola, grows under ground. The *ouvanda*, another species of pea, is gathered from a shrub which lives three years, and affords good nourishment. M. de Grandpré particularly mentions the *msangui*, which has a taste resembling the lentil. It ranges the whole length of the tree.† There are several kinds of small bean, which, planted during the rainy season, afford three crops in six months. The *neubanzam* is like our nut, and requires little attention; it forms the common food of the natives of Congo. The ananas, six spans high, and always full of fruit, grows naturally in the most desert situations,‡ as the sugar-cane in the most marshy. This last reaches an immeasurable height: the negroes suck the juice, and sometimes bring it to market. The liquorice plant is here parasitical, and its flavour exists only in the stalk. Tobacco appears to be indigenous. It is negligently cultivated, although it is an object of the first importance among the negroes, women as well as men, who all smoke, and make use of earthen pipes. Some of them also use it in the form of powder. The vine has been transplanted from the Canary Islands and Madeira. The grape is gathered to the south of the river Zaïre: that of the Capuchins is of an excellent qua-

* Labat, I. p. 114. † De Grandpré, I. p. 6.
‡ Labat, I. p. 142. Zucchelli, p. 151.

lity.* The cotton of Congo is not inferior to the American. The pimento is extremely acrid. The clusters of *inquoffo*, which climb trees or entwine plants, afford another very powerful species of pepper. The *dondo* possesses all the qualities of canella. The fruit of the *mamao*, a shrub with very large leaves, is like our gourd. The other shrubs and small trees to be noticed are: the *mololo*, like the lemon: it is stomachic; the *mambrocha*, of a pale yellow, like the orange; the *mobulla*, an aromatic and very wholesome fruit, which grows, in the axillae of the leaves, like our figs.† Besides the pisang, or Java fig, from which is made the bread of the rich, and the *bacouve*, fruit of a fig-banana, the *nicosso*, another kind of pisang, grows in clusters, of the form of a pine-apple, containing more than two hundred delicious fruits, which ripen during the whole year. The orange, lemon, pomegranate, guava-trees, &c., for the culture of which they are indebted to the Portuguese, have not degenerated.‡

Aromatics.

Fruit-trees.

In general, southern Guinea is enriched with the same vegetable productions as Guinea, properly so called. It possesses exclusively the *conde*§ of two species. Its fruit, in shape like a pine-apple, contains a white, farinaceous, and refreshing substance, which melts upon the tongue. The fruit of the *zaffo* is like our plum; it is, however, larger, and of a bright red colour. That of the *oghohe* has the same shape, is yellow, sweet-scented, and of an agreeable flavour; the tree is used in timber-work. The *insanda*, or *enzanda*, an evergreen-tree, which in its leaves resembles a laurel, does not bear fruit; but its bark is used in the manufacturing of stuffs which are in high esteem. Its branches reach the ground, and take root. It is probably the *ficus benianina* of Linnæus.‖ The *mulemba*, which is very like the *insanda*, furnishes materials for stuffs of a much higher value. The resin procured from

Indigenous Trees.

* Labat, I. p. 144. Proyrat, p. 29—94. † Labat, I. p. 137.

‡ Labat, p. 119—138—141. Proyart, p. 25.

§ Zucchelli, p. 152. (It appears that *conde* is a Portuguese denomination.)

‖ Bruns, Afrika, IV. p. 34. Labat, I. p. 122.

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its trunk makes a good bird-lime. The *mirrone*, of the same genus, is an object of adoration to the negroes. The oils of *liquieri*, or *luqui*, of *capanano*, or devil's-fig, and of *purgera*,* as well as the gums or resins of *cassanevo* and *almetica*, are used both in domestic economy and in medicine.† The *muchiæ*, a tree as large as our oak, produces a pungent, but agreeable fruit. The fruit of the *avasasse* is as large as a nut, and has the flavour of a strawberry. The juice of the *gegero*, which resembles an oblong orange, is strengthening. The seeds of *colleva*, the fruit of a very large tree, and resembling an enormous lemon, are red, bitter, and stomachic. Forests of Mangrove extend along the marshy coasts and the rivers. Sandal wood, red and grey, called *chigongo*, is abundant in Anzico. The tamarind trees and cedars which line the Congo river might afford wood for the building of large fleets.‡

Valuable Woods.

Palms.

Many species of the palm tree adorn the plains of Guinea. They have not been examined by any naturalist, but there appear to be many peculiar to this country.

The cocoa rises above all these useful trees; its fruit is here, as in every other situation, one of the greatest blessings of nature. The palm *matome*§ grows in a marshy soil. The ribs of its leaves, prodigiously large, are used for the roofing of houses, for ladders of thirty or forty steps, and for elastic poles to support the hammocks of the great.‖

The palm *matoba*, probably the *Cocos guineensis* of Linnæus, yields a sourish wine; its fruit is smaller than the cocoa; its leaves, shorter and wider than those of the preceding species, are used for the covering of houses, or for making hampers and baskets. The sap of the dwarf-palm, the smallest of the species, yields an unwholesome beverage, which the stomach of negroes alone can bear. Very

* *Purgera* is also Portuguese. † Labat, I. p. 80, 124, 146.
‡ Lopez, p. 42. § A variety of the *Borassus Flabellifer*, L.
‖ Labat, I. 128.

beautiful stuffs are manufactured from the fibres of these leaves. The date-tree, the fruit of which is excellent, bears here the name of *tamara*, the name given to it in the sacred writings. This might lead us to conjecture that some Hebrews or Arabs have penetrated as far as Congo. The fruit of the palm *coccata* contains a delicious drink; it is of the size of a melon, and differs little from the cocoa-nut; the remaining substance affords a good aliment.

The tufts of the noble palm of Congo enclose and embellish the fields and forests of the country of which it bears the name; its fruits, very abundant, are not inferior to any other species of palm; its wine is sweet, sharp, agreeable, and as strong as Champaigne. When not deprived of its sap, it produces at the root of its leaves a fruit which a man can scarcely carry; its seeds have the colour and taste of chesnuts. When baked, they are the support of the poor; and when heated, afford a thick oil, used by the negroes for seasoning their food, and by Europeans in the process of refining: the fibres of the leaves are used in making baskets, ropes, and mats.* This palm, the same undoubtedly to which Lopez gives the name of *colà*, and M. de Grandpré that of *latanier*, as the most common palm, appears to be the *Elate silvestris* of Linnæus.†

We cannot conclude this account of the principal vegetable productions of Lower Guinea, without noticing that colossus of the earth, the enormous *baobab*, or *Adansonia digitata*, which is here called *aliconda*, *bondo*, and *mapou*. It abounds throughout the whole of the kingdom of Congo, and is so large, that the arms of twenty men cannot embrace it.‡ The substance of its fruits, sufficiently large to kill, in its fall, both man and animals, presents a coarse food for the negroes, who, when in want, eat even the leaves of the tree; the shell affords solid *vases*; from

The Baobab.

* Labat, I. p. 133.

† Lopez, p. 41. De Grandpré, I. p. 13.

‡ Zucchelli, p. 282.

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the cinders of the wood soap is extracted; from the bark are made crapes and coarse linen, serviceable stuffs for the poor, and matches for artillery. The tree being very subject to decay, the negroes avoid constructing their huts within its shade, lest they should be crushed by its fall; but the hollow formed in the interior of its trunk, frequently contains water sufficient to supply several thousand men for one day;* and bees have a propensity to swarm in hives attached to the extremities of the branches.

The greater number of these trees and shrubs, are said not to bear conspicuous flowers; they are green through the whole year; only the leaves, which have an appearance of being scorched during the dry season, fall at the period when new ones come forth, at the beginning of the rains.

Animals.

In ascending from plants to animated beings, we first observe slugs as large as the human arm.† The sea-shore is covered with cowries. The fish, both of the sea and of rivers, are scarcely better known to travellers than to the inhabitants, who are unacquainted with the means of taking them. M. de Grandpré‡ believes, that the fresh water fishes, and those taken in the sea, wherever the depth does not exceed an hundred fathoms, are nearly the same as our own. A species of small *grumbler* may be remarked; the air does not destroy its life so quickly as in other fish; and for a long time after having been taken, it emits a cry which appears distinctly to articulate *cro-cro*. In fishing with a net, there is a risk of being struck by the torpedo, a species of electric ray whose tail is armed with a dart. The sting of this fish is generally followed by a considerable swelling, accompanied with acute pains during several days. Zucchelli and Cavazzi give many details concerning the lady-fish, or *Pesce donna*, which appears to be a phocus, perhaps the sea-cow (*manatus*). Battel§ speaks of a cetaceous fish, called in the language of the country *emboa*,

Fishes.

* Battel, p. 985.

† Proyart, p. 35.

‡ De Grandpré, I. p. 35.

§ Purchas, II. p. 934.

the dog; it resembles considerably the *Delphinus-orca*, and drives before it, along the coast, great numbers of fish, and is itself occasionally taken in the net; it is probably the *Delphinus delphis*. They dread, in the neighbouring latitudes, the saw-fish, differing little from those in the European seas; the *pico*, a large and dangerous fish; and many species of whales. M. de Grandpré enumerates the pike and shark tribe, fishes of prey which wage war with men, swallowing both blacks and whites without distinction. It is an error to suppose that the negroes of the coast have the talent and courage to oppose the shark by force. There are eels, of excellent quality, carp, squillone, and other fishes proper for food, in the rivers and lakes.

Reptiles.

All the rivers are filled with crocodiles, called by some travellers caïmans; they are generally twenty-five feet long, according to Cavazzi;* there are some also which never enter the water, but hunt fowls, sheep, and she-goats. In another place† however he states, that there are lizards which differ very little from crocodiles. Cameleons are found in great numbers, and are considered very venomous.‡ The flying lizard, or palm-rat, a pretty little animal, is an object of religious worship;§ the rich preserve it with great care, and exhibit it to the adoration of the people, who offer it presents. Frogs and toads are of an enormous size.

Different kinds of serpents.

Monstrous serpents infest these inhospitable countries. The *boa* or *boma*, in length from twenty-five to thirty feet, and five in thickness,‖ darts from trees upon men and animals, swallowing them at once, and in its turn becomes a prey to the negroes, who attack it during its digestion, or burn it by setting fire to the woods at the termination of the rains.¶ It wages an interminable war against the crocodiles. The bite of another species of serpent is

* Labat, I. p. 185—293. † Ibidem, I. p. 422.

‡ Zucchelli, p. 147. § Lopez, p. 33; de Grandpré, I. 34.

‖ Battel, p. 995. ¶ Lopez, p. 32. Carli, Relation of his Mission, p. 45, Germ. trans. Cavazzi or Labat, I. p. 199.

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mortal within twenty-four hours. Travellers who are fond of the marvellous, represent it as blind, and describe it with two heads; they mean the *amphisbœna*.

The *mamba*, as thick as a man's thigh, is twenty feet long, and very nimble. It instinctively chases the *n'damba*, and devours it whole and alive. This last is only an ell long, with a wide and flat head like the viper, and the skin beautifully spotted; its poison is very subtle. The *n'bambi* is one of the most venomous; is with difficulty distinguished from the trees themselves, the trunks of which it entwines, lying in wait for its prey. It is reported that the touch only of the *lenta*, a variegated viper, is followed by death, but that the bite of the animal is its antidote. The country swarms with scorpions and centipedes; the former often creep into houses and books.*

Insects.

The fleas, bugs, and flies of Europe, are not found in Guinea; there are, however, gnats and mosquitoes in abundance,† which form one of the plagues of the country. The sting of the *banzo*, of the same size as our gadfly, is said to be mortal. Different species of very formidable ants infest both men and animals. Malefactors, who are sometimes bound and exposed to them, are consumed to the bones in one day. The *insondi* or *insongongi*, enter the trunk of elephants, and cause them to die in extreme madness. The sting of the *inzeni*, which are a black and very large species, produces violent pains for some hours. The *salale* (termes), small, round, red, and white, are the most dangerous; they insinuate themselves every where, and destroy linen, merchandize, furniture, and even houses, the wood work of which they hollow out, leaving nothing but an external shell. According to Grandpré,‡ they have the instinct to fill up with clay the stakes which support the houses, to prevent their fall. Fire alone, and marble, can resist their devouring teeth; but furniture may be secured by placing the feet in pans of water.

* De Grandpré, I. p. 37.

† Tuckey asserts the contrary, p. 337.

‡ Grandpré, I. p. 20.

In a country so infested with noisome and destructive insects, it is pleasant to know that one, at least, of considerable utility exists; it is a scarabaeus, of the size of a cockchafer, which contributes essentially to the salubrity of the atmosphere, by making deep holes, and burying in them all impure and corruptible matters under ground; it is the more valuable in consequence of its wonderful fecundity. Numberless swarms of bees wander in the forests, occupying the hollows of trees,—and it is only necessary to drive them away by lighting fires under them, and thus take their honey. Grasshoppers are esteemed as food by the natives, and are not despised even by Europeans.

Birds.

The ostrich and peacock are esteemed by the negroes.* In Angola, the king has reserved the sole privilege of keeping peacocks.† There are both brown and red partridges, which have the peculiarity of perching upon trees. The quail, pheasant, thrush, the widow and cardinal birds, are found in abundance. The cuckoo differs from ours in its note.‡ The *Cuculus indicator*, found in every part of the torrid zone, here bears the name of *sengo*. The parrot varies much as to size, colour, and voice.§ Very different to those we see in cages, strong, nimble, and bold, they fly with great rapidity, and are very formidable to other birds, which they attack, and lacerate most unmercifully in the combat.

The different species of turtle doves, pigeons, fowls, ducks, and geese of this country are not well distinguished. The idle disposition of the natives has never thought of profiting by the use of the eggs of fowls in domestic economy. The hen, left to herself, deposits her eggs where she pleases, and runs undisturbed about the fields with her chickens in search of food. Among the fisher birds, is the pelican, the puffin, and gulls of every variety. The skin of the pelican, applied to the stomach, is said to restore its vigour.

* Zucchelli, p. 286; Labat, I. 184.

† Lopez, p. 33.

‡ Proyart, p. 33.

§ De Grandpré, I. 34.

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It is astonishing to behold the immense number of eagles, vultures, falcons, hawks, and other birds of prey, which hover over the woods when set on fire by the negroes, and snatch from the midst of the flames quadrupeds and serpents half roasted. According to the report of travellers, who have given a very superficial account of birds, the number of owls, screech owls, and bats, is also very considerable.

Quadrupeds.

Among the quadrupeds, the hippopotamus affords the negroes an agreeable dish; which, on meagre days, is not unacceptable to Europeans.* The wild boar (*engalli*,) of which there are several varieties, is a scourge to the country. The hog, introduced by the Portuguese, is less remarkable for its size than for the goodness of its flesh. The blacks rear a few guinea-pigs. The use of the horse, the ass, and the mule is a nullity to the negro who dares not even venture to mount them. Whether negroes or Portuguese, the inhabitants find it preferable to be carried about in hammocks.

According to Lopez and Battel, there is not a single horse to be found throughout the whole of Congo. A missionary declares that he had seen one only.† Those which Europeans had imported to multiply the species were either devoured by wild beasts or by the negroes, who like their flesh. The zebra is not rare in Congo, in Benguela and Loango.‡ The negroes hunt it for food, and sell its skin to Europeans. Herds of two or three hundred buffaloes are often seen, which appear to be of the same species with those of the Cape. The hunt is dangerous. They are continually at war with the lion, the panther, and the leopard. Oxen do not labour; the negroes do not attend to them, and most of the cows left by ships at their departure perish. Sheep brought from Europe are diminished in size, and their wool has become changed into a short hair; but they are very prolific.

* Labat, I. p. 193—197. Battel, p. 984. Zucchelli, p. 145.

† Proyart, p. 31. ‡ Labat, p. 168. Lopez, p. 30. Carli, Battel, etc.

Roebucks, wild goats, gazelles, or antelopes, in great numbers, are to be found in those parts of the country which are near water. The size of the *empolanga* or *impolanca** is equal to the ox: he carries his neck upright, and his head erect; his horns, three palms in length, crooked, knotty, and terminating in points, are made into wind instruments. Naturalists must decide whether this is not the *empophos* or elk of the Cape.† Cavazzi distinguishes it from the *imparguas*, which he compares to wild mules; its flesh is eaten. The smallest species of gazelle is called *n'sosi*. Lopez is the only traveller who mentions rabbits, martins, and sables. M. de Grandpré adds hares, but the civet (*Viverra zibetha*) is here indigenous; the Portuguese, on their arrival, found some domesticated. Dogs rove in troops, and only utter a mournful howl; even those that are brought from Europe soon lose their power of smelling and barking.‡ The wolves, whose flesh affords a meal to the negro, are their implacable enemies. These wolves or rather jackalls, are very fond of palm oil, and have a quick scent. Too cowardly to attack men on the highway, they enter by troops into houses by night, and seize them while asleep. Their hideous cries in the deserts, spread terror among the caravans, who consider them as infallible presages of death. Zucchelli speaks of them under the name of *mebbie*, wild dogs, and distinguishes them very precisely from wolves.§ Another species of wild-dog, with spotted skin, is also mentioned. These attack with fury flocks of sheep, goats, the largest cattle, and even wild beasts; they are probably hyænas. The ravages occasioned by leopards and panthers, called in the language of the country *engoi*, are not less considerable. There appear to be two species of *engoi*; the one possesses the open country, the other the forest: the latter is the most formidable, from

Carnivorous animals.

* Lopez, p. 31. Battel, p. 972. Labat et Cavazzi, I. p. 26—160.

† Zimmermann, Hist. de l'Homme, II. p. 109. (In German.)

‡ Battel, pages 982 et 954. Labat, I. p. 168.

§ Zucchelli, p. 293. Labat, I. p. 167.

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its sudden irruptions into inhabited districts. The *n'sofi* and the *gingi*, resemble in some degree the wild-cat and the tiger-cat.*

Monkeys.

The variety of monkeys which sport upon the highest trees is so great, that travellers have despaired of being able to reduce them to a catalogue. They abound particularly in the environs of the river Zaïre. Europeans are particularly partial to a small monkey, with a long tail and blue face, remarkable for its great gentleness and docility.

Account of a chimpanzee.

The largest monkey of Guinea, called *chimpanzee*, or *kimpezey*, in the country,† *pongo*, or *cujoes*, by the traveller Battel,‡ and by naturalists, *Simia troglodytes*, is not found far from the equator.§ Its height is four feet, and there is no appearance of a tail. M. de Grandpré has had an opportunity of admiring the understanding, if not the mind, of a female, which was subject to the same peculiar complaints as women. This animal had learned to heat the oven: it was particularly careful that no coal should escape, and set fire to the vessel; perfectly understood when the oven was sufficiently heated, and never failed to apprize the baker of this circumstance; and he, in his turn, entirely confided in it, hastening to bring his shovel as soon as the animal came to fetch him, without ever being led into an error by his informant. When they turned the capstan, it endeavoured to assist with all its power, like a sailor. When the sails were loosened for departure it mounted, of its own accord, the yards with the sailors, who treated it as one of their own crew. It would have taken charge of the main-sail, a most difficult and dangerous service, if the sailor who was destined to that particular post had not refused to give it up. It belaced the shrouds as well as any sailor; and observing how the end of the rope was fastened to prevent its hanging, it did

* Idem, I. p. 177. † Grandpré, I. p. 26.

‡ Zimmermann, Hist. de l'Homme, II. p. 170.

§ Purchas, p. 982.

the same to that of which it had possession. Finding its hand caught, and held fast, it disengaged it without crying, or altering its features; and when the business was over, it showed its superior agility over the other sailors, by passing them, and descending in an instant. This animal died on the passage, owing to the brutal treatment of the second mate. It bore this cruel usage with the greatest resignation, raising its hands in a suppliant manner, to implore a remission of the stripes they were inflicting. From that moment, it refused to eat, and died of hunger and suffering, on the fifth day, as much regretted as any one of the crew would have been.

The ancients appear to have been well acquainted with this monkey.* It generally walks upright, supported by the branch of a tree, after the manner of walking with a stick. The negroes dread it, and not without reason, for it treats them harshly whenever they meet. If credit may be given to more than one missionary,† a connexion between these satyrs and negresses, to whom they appear singularly partial, has really produced species of monsters.

Chorographic description.

We shall now proceed to trace a chorographic sketch of the countries, the physical condition of which we have above described: at first confining ourselves to the countries bordering on the sea-coast, and to those of the interior politically connected with them, whose limits are tolerably well ascertained; though, with respect to the geographical position of the whole coast, Captain Tuckey has discovered that a considerable error has prevailed. From Cape Lopez to Cape *Padron*, it has been laid down a degree farther to the westward than its true situation. From Cape Lopez to the bay of *Saint Catherine*, a port seldom visited, the coast is very little known, and appears to consist of low land, covered with trees. The natives are in a miserable condition, and considered treacherous. Their chief acknowledges the sovereignty of Loango. The river *Sette* waters

* Ælian, XVI. p. 15. Galen, Adm. anat. I. p. 2. and VI. p. 1. Herod, IV.

† Lopez, p. 32. Labat. I. p. 174.

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a country from which red-wood has been exported; at present, however, it is not frequented. At the mouth of the great river Banna,* is the bay of *Mayomba*, where there is rather more commerce; the inhabitants are more civil, hospitable, and intelligent, than those of the other states; they procure the greater part of the ivory sold in the neighbouring ports; they can work in copper, and are acquainted with the gum-tree; but it is not true that the mountains of *Mayomba* contain gold: in that case, the natives would have worked the mines. Their chiefs are subordinate to the kingdom of *Loango*, which extends about fifty marine leagues from north to south, and sixty from east to west; but it contains, with its dependencies, at most only six hundred thousand inhabitants, so greatly has the slave-trade drained its population.† The country round the bay of Loango, exhibits mountains of a red colour, tolerably steep, and covered with palms. The city of Bouali, better known by the name of Banza-Loango, the capital of the kingdom, situated about a league from the coast, in a large and fertile plain, has long, straight, and clean streets,‡ and fifteen thousand inhabitants, tolerably industrious.§ It has an agreeable appearance, on account of the palms and pisangs which shade and cover the adjoining country. The water is excellent; but the harbour is not sufficiently deep for large vessels, and its entrance is obstructed by rocks. There is here a trade for fine stuffs, manufactured in the city, from leaves. Provisions, fowls, fish, oils, wines, corn, ivory, copper and dye-wood, inferior to that of Brazil; and, it is to be remarked, that the negroes of Loango are not very nice with regard to the merchandize imported, and readily take what would be refused in other places. But the natives, from policy, and perhaps by means of poison, which they well know how to administer, have given their country the reputation of being extremely unhealthy, which has prevented Europeans from

Kingdom of Loango.

* Battel, p. 981.
† De Grandpré, I. p. 216.
‡ Battel, p. 979. Proyart, p. 204.
§ De Grandpré, I. p. 68.

establishing themselves there, or even from sleeping on shore. The slaves brought to this market are from Mayomba, Quibangua, or Montequessa: the Mayombas are inferior in quality, but most numerous: the Quibanguas belong to a small district in the interior; they are the finest negroes, well made, very black, with a pleasing countenance; their teeth are particularly beautiful: the Montequas are well made, but spoil their teeth by filing, with a view of rendering them pointed; they also make long marks upon both cheeks, and sometimes on the body.*

Black Jews.

A fact worthy the attention of travellers, is, that, according to Oldendorp,† the kingdom of Loango contains black Jews, scattered throughout the country; they are despised by the negroes, who do not even deign to eat with them; they are occupied in trade, and keep the sabbath so strictly that they do not even converse on that day; they have a separate burying ground, very far from any habitation. The tombs are constructed with masonry, and ornamented with Hebrew inscriptions; the singularity of which excites the laughter of the negroes, who discern in them only serpents, lizards, and other reptiles. M. Ehrmann, finding it impossible to explain the origin of these Jews, doubts the reality of the fact; Busching, however, Michaelis, and Zimmermann, do not hesitate to admit their existence; Bruns considers them the descendants of the Falashes of Habesch, or Abyssinia, and Sprengel wishes them to be considered as the descendants of Portuguese Jews, who, having quitted their country, are no longer afraid to profess openly the religion of their fathers. Five leagues to the north of Loango is *Quilonga*, a river of very difficult access, whither trading vessels sometimes go.

Kingdom of Cacongo.

The kingdom of *Cacongo*, by sailors generally called Malemba, from the principal port situated about sixteen

* De Grandpré, II. p. 13.

† Oldendorp, Histoire de la Mission, I. p. 287.

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leagues south of Loango, is famous for the excellent slaves formerly obtained there; it abounds in fruits and vegetables, kids, pigs, game, and fish.* The king dines alone in public, surrounded by a numerous suite; but, as soon as he prepares to drink some palm wine, every one present is obliged to prostrate himself on the ground, lest the king should die if any one of his subjects should witness his drinking.† While sitting in the quality of judge, form requires that every judgment given should be followed by a draught of wine, with a view of refreshing his majesty. *Kingele*, the capital of the country, is about thirty leagues from the coast; it consists of several thousand huts, over which palm and other trees wave their verdant heads.

Kingdom of Cabinda or En-Goy.

The bay of *Cabinda*, situated five short leagues to the south of *Malemba*, often gives its name to the kingdom of *N'Goyo*, otherwise *En-Goy* or *Goy*. It is a very fine harbour, called the Paradise of the Coast, and the most agreeable situation of all the surrounding country.‡ The sea is always smooth, and debarkation very easy. The Portuguese after having, at different periods, endeavoured to establish themselves here, made a last attempt during the American war, and opposed by force the first vessels which came to trade at this port, after the peace of 1783. The French government sent an expedition commanded by M. de Marigny, who destroyed the fort and made the trade free. The country, in general, is very fine, extremely fertile, and contains many beautiful spots. The capital is at a distance of two days journey in the interior.

Different tribes.

The trade of this part of the country consists of Congos, Sognies, and Mondongos, whom the blacks call Mondongonese.§ The Sognies are generally copper-coloured, large, and tolerably well made. The Mondongonese are both handsome and of good dispositions; but they are accustomed, like the Montegnese, to whom they are neighbours, to

* De Grandpré, II. p. 22—25.
† Proyart, p. 129.
‡ De Grandpré, II. p. 26.
§ De Grandpré, 37. et suiv.

cut their faces so as to make large scars; their teeth also are all filed. They likewise score their breasts in various symmetrical forms, allow the skin to swell before it heals, that it may be raised above the edges of the wound, and thus form a sort of embroidery of which they are very vain. The women also lacerate their neck unmercifully for the sake of this supposed beauty. They have besides, the folly to inflict three large wounds on the belly, and to make the skin swell, so that three large transverse protuberances may be formed upon this region. They never cease to cut and to heal the wound alternately, until it has acquired the extent desired. Many blacks, chiefly among the Mondongos, are circumcised, but they do not appear to attach to it any religious idea.

Kingdom of Congo.

After crossing the Zaïre, you immediately enter the kingdom of *Congo*, bounded on the south by the river Danda, by sandy deserts and the lofty mountains of Angola, on the east, by the countries almost unknown of Fungeno and Matamba, by the mountains of the Sun, and the rivers Coanza and Barbeli,* which appears to be the principal branch of the Zaïre. Many pleasant islands arise from the bed of the Zaïre.

It overflows during the rainy season, and fertilizes the adjoining country; nevertheless, far from frequenting it, ships avoid it on account of the unhealthiness of the air and water. Tuckey found its risings to take place both in the wet and dry season, commonly to twelve feet of elevation in the wet, and seven feet in the dry season. From the latter increase, he considered the northern origin of the Zaïre as demonstrated.† Going towards the south is the river *Ambriz*, where there is a small road. The port itself, within a bank of sand, can only receive two vessels.‡ The river *Mapoula* is still farther to the south. Vessels do not go thither, on account of the exactions of the Portuguese, whose last stations are found in this neighbourhood.

* Labat, p. 22. † p. 223, 342, 343.

‡ De Grandpré, II. p. 41 et suiv.

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Produce.

The country of Congo is extremely fertile, and produces two crops within the year, the one during the month of April, and the other in December.* Besides palm trees, which are very fine, there are forests of jasmine, and wild cinnamon trees in great numbers. Hogs, sheep, birds, fowls, fish, and the tortoise, are in abundance.

Government.

The Portuguese, whose missionaries have been active since 1482, in preaching the Gospel to the inhabitants of Congo, have succeeded in bringing this kingdom under their sovereignty; but whether owing to weakness or negligence, they leave it a prey to intestine revolutions. In order to familiarize the negroes with the forms of European civilization, they have made the nobles adopt, instead of the eminent title of mani or seigneur,† the titles of duke, count, and marquis, and have divided the kingdom into six provinces, viz. Sogno, Pemba, Batta, Pango, Bamba, and Sandi. Sometimes they reckon only five: San Salvador, the residence of the king; Bambi, Sandi, Pemba, and Sogno. Bamba and Sandi are dutchies, Sogno, a county, and Pemba, a marquisate. Each of these provinces has a banza, or residence for the chief.‡

City of Saint Salvador.

The capital of Congo, called by the Portuguese St. Salvador, forms, with its precincts, a particular district, under the immediate government of the king, and is bounded by Sogno, Sandi, and Pemba. It is situated very far in the interior, upon a high mountain containing mines of iron. Its position is extolled as one of the most healthy in the world.§

Its streets are wide, with many squares symmetrically planted with palm trees, whose perpetual verdure forms a pleasing contrast with the whiteness of the houses, which are washed with lime both within and without. Its population is subject to great variation, in consequence of

* Labat, V. p. 160. Falconbridge's Account, etc. p. 55.

† Lopez, p. 34. ‡ Labat, V. p. 129. Carli, p. 36. Lopez, p. 39.

§ Wadstram, Essay on Colonization.

the revolutionary tumults which are inseparable from the accession of a new king. At the beginning of the 18th century, when Zucchelli visited the city, it presented a heap of ruins.* On the summit of the mountain there is a fort, which was built by the Portuguese soon after their arrival, and which now encloses the king's palace with its dependencies. There are still some remains of churches formerly built by them. The dispersed Europeans, estimated at forty thousand persons, have established themselves in other situations, diffusing among the natives necessary and useful arts.

Province of Sogno.

The province of Sogno or Sonho, to the west of St. Salvador, between the Zaïre, Ambriz, and the sea, is a sandy and dry soil, very favourable, however, to the growth of palms. It has good salt pits along the sea-shore, which are very productive to its prince. Times of scarcity, which frequently occur, do not diminish the natural gaiety of the inhabitants. This scarcity, joined to a superabundant population, has forced many to quit the country and to establish themselves in Cacongo, on the north side of the Zaïre. M. De Grandpré describes them as quarrelsome, morose, cunning, and cowardly: one thing may be considered as certain, that they are very ill-disposed towards Europeans of every description.†

Province of Bamba.

*Bamba*, also situated on the coast, lies between the rivers Ambriz and Loz, to the south of Sogno, and east of Pomba, is one of the great and fertile provinces of the kingdom. It has large salt pits, and fisheries of cowries.‡ Its mountains, rich in metals, extend as far as Angola.§

Province of Pemba.

The province of *Pemba*, situated in the centre of the empire, is watered and fertilized by the rivers Lelunda, Kai, and Ambriz. Its proximity to the capital gives a stimulus to activity and industry, and renders the inhabitants secure from those persecutions to which the other provinces are subject from their governors.

* Zucchelli, p. 145.

† Labat, I. p. 29. De Grandpré, II. p. 35.

‡ Labat, I. p. 26.

§ Lopez, p. 28.

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*Batta*, situated to the east of Pemba, and north of the burning mountains, is of considerable extent. It is asserted that the inhabitants, generally called *Mosombi*,* have, from the natural goodness of their disposition, adopted the Christian religion with more zeal than all the other Congos. Nevertheless, and probably on account of these sentiments, they are generally at war with the neighbouring districts, particularly with the formidable Giagas. Their governor, however, has the sole permission of maintaining soldiers taken from among the natives, while all the other governors of provinces are compelled to employ the Portuguese troops.† The Mosombi can raise from sixty to eighty thousand men.

Province of Batta.

Province of Panga.

The province of *Panga*, is bounded on the west by Batta, on the south by Dembo, and the mountains of the Sun, on the east by the river Barbeli, and on the north by Sandi.

Province of Sandi.

*Sandi*, to the north-east of St. Salvador, is bounded on the north by the river Zaïre, on the south-east by the provinces of Batta and Panga, on the north-east by the kingdom of Macoco and the Crystalline hills, at the foot of which the Bancoar empties itself into the Zaïre. The country is well watered and rich in metals, particularly iron. The mountains to the north of the Zaïre, near the great water-fall, where the Dukes of Sandi exercise a precarious authority, contain mines of yellow copper, which is sold at Loanda. The tranquillity of this province is frequently disturbed by the insubordination of the district chiefs, who revolt against the Duke. The Giagas and other savage tribes, by their frequent inroads, keep up the ferocity of their habits. Merchants, however, carry on a profitable trade by bringing salt, cowries, as well as Indian and European goods, in exchange for ivory, skins, and stuffs.

Various Provinces.

Besides these six provinces, there are others more or less important, viz. *Zuiona*, *Zuia-Maxondo*, *N" Damba*, *N"*

* Labat. I. p. 35. † Lopez, p. 37.

*Susso, N'Sella, Juva, Alombo, N'Zolo, N'Zanga, Marsinga, Mortondo,* these are in a great measure uncultivated, deserted, or occupied by savage nations, who lead a wandering life in the midst of forests, or in the narrow passes of inaccessible mountains.

The province of *Ovando,* on the confines of Angola, was formerly subject to the King of Congo, but the chiefs have withdrawn themselves from the authority of their lawful sovereign, to place themselves under the protection of the Portuguese, who honour them with the title of Duke. The *Dombi* have also been influenced by this example and by the arts of the missionaries.

Kingdom of Angola.

The different meanings attached to the name of *Angola,* have caused some confusion in the accounts of travellers in Low Guinea. This name, is frequently given to the country situated between Cape Lopez Gonsalvo and St. Philip de Benguela, viz., from 10° 44′ to 12° 14′ of southern latitude. The Portuguese, however, ever jealous of their colony Loanda-San-Paolo, do not readily allow access to strangers, who, consequently, scarcely advance towards the south beyond Ambriz in 7° 20′ of latitude; it is the coast therefore, from this port to Cape Lopez, to which the name of Angola is generally given in commerce.*

Physical and Political state.

The kingdom of Dongo, Angola, or N'Gola, of geographers, is bounded on the north by the river Danda, on the east by Matemba, on the south by Benguela, and on the west by the sea. Before its conquest by the Portuguese, its boundaries extended from 8° 30′ to 16° of south latitude.† It is a very mountainous country, and little cultivated. From May to the end of October, no rain falls. Its dry and stony mountains have no springs; fresh water therefore is very scarce. The idea of making cisterns is beyond the narrow understandings of the natives; the industry of the more provident among them, is confined to the boring of troughs in the trunks of trees in which they preserve rain-water. The Portuguese having been unable

* De Grandpré, Introd. p. 23. † Bruns, Afrika, IV. p. 156.

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to convert these people to Christianity, content themselves with enrolling them for military service. The garrisons of the greater number of their forts consist of Angolese, whom, however, they do not instruct in the use of fire-arms. With the view of attaching them, they have given to the natives some privileges, the most important of which is, the appointment of their governors or viceroys. Salt, wax, and honey, are the principal productions of the country.

Provinces.

*Quitama* holds the first rank among its provinces. It is situated at the mouth of the Coanza, a rapid and deep river, which vessels may ascend to the extent of forty leagues. It abounds with the hippopotamus. *Sumbi*, the second province, is watered by the rivers Nice, Caiba, and Catacombole. Fine pasture grounds are seen occupied by serpents, and wild beasts. Some islands, situated at the mouth of the Catacombole, are cultivated and populous. They breed numerous herds of horned cattle.*

City of Loanda San-Paolo.

From the north, along the coast of Angola, we arrive at the city of *Loanda-San-Paolo*, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in the west of Africa. It is situated at the bottom of a gulf, at the mouth of the river Bengo, and has a good fort, defended by batteries and by a garrison of malefactors. The city is built partly upon the sea-shore, and partly on an eminence which commands the country. Regular sea-breezes moderate the summer heats. According to Raynal, its population is from seven to eight hundred whites, and three thousand negroes or free mulattoes. More ancient and probable accounts, estimate the number of whites and free men of colour at three thousand, without determining the number of black slaves, who form the principal wealth of the inhabitants; one proprietor often has more than a hundred in his service. Almost every slave understanding some trade, they work for the profit of their masters.† There is a tribunal of the inquisition, a bishop, many convents, and churches in every respect worthy of the devout Portuguese. Nothing can equal the magnifi-

* Labat, I. p. 59. † Idem, V. p. 124.

cence with which the saints days are celebrated. The rich inhabitants have built elegant country houses on the banks of the Coanza, the Bengo, and the Donda, which diversify the prospect over a circumference of forty leagues.

The island of Loanda shelters the port, and supplies the city with good water. It is rendered remarkable, by the fine brown, brilliant, and much esteemed cowries, which are here fished at the expense of the king of Portugal. In other respects the suspicious jealousy of the Portuguese conceals, under an impenetrable veil, the commerce and industry of this place. It appears from positive data, that Loanda communicates by land with Mozambique, by means of caravans, which coast along the river Zambesa.*

Kingdom of Benguela.

*Benguela*, although equally subject to the Portuguese government, has retained the title of kingdom, and some insignificant privileges. It extends from the rivers Cubegi and Coanza, as far as cape Negro. Its eastern limit is formed by the river Cumeni. Its interior, hilly and rugged, conceals prodigious numbers of elephants, rhinocerosses, zebras, and antelopes. The oxen and sheep are of an extraordinary size; but the extreme droughts, and the incursions of the Giagas, have considerably diminished their number. There are excellent salt pits in Benguela.

Provinces.

The province of *Lubolo*, on the confines of Quissama, abounds in palmtrees, numerous herds of antelopes feed under their shade.† It sometimes gives its name to the whole territory comprised within the rivers Congo and *dos Ramos*.

The province of *Rimba*, abounds in corn, and has good fisheries. *Scela*, to the west of Bamba, is a hilly and well-watered country, rich in pasturage, and has excellent iron. The mountain rocks support, on their summits, many fields well cultivated, where the inhabitants breathe a pure and wholesome air.‡

* De Grandpré, I. p. 223. (See hereafter the article Mozambique.)

† Labat, I. p. 66. ‡ Tuckey, 352.

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The provinces of *Upper and Lower Bemba*, abound in horned cattle, tame as well as wild; the river *Latano*, called by the Portuguese *Guavoro*, or, *Rio San Francisco*, which runs through them, abounds in fish, crocodiles, serpents, and the hippopotamus. The idiom of the people of Bemba is peculiar, and very difficult. They are prone to idolatry and superstition. The skins of animals and serpents, pierced with a hole for their heads, serve them for clothing.

Inhabitants of Bemba.

*Tamba*, bounded on the east by Bamba, is a country intersected with rivers and marshes. *Impolangas*, and *impanguas*,* are found there in considerable quantity. The source of the Congo, it is said, is at the bottom of a rock, surmounted by a Portuguese fort, which commands the province. The country of *Wacco*, consists of hills and fruitful valleys. *Cabezzo* abounds in metals, particularly in iron.

The Portuguese establishment of *S. Philippe de Benguela*, on the river of that name, in a very unhealthy situation, is defended by a garrison of two hundred transported convicts;† and contains only houses built with mud and straw.‡ Old Benguela, is a post still more insignificant.

Kingdom of Matamba.

The kingdom of *Matamba*, lies between the limits of Congo and Benguela; towards the east, it is surrounded by very high mountains and thick forests; the air is temperate, and the soil fertilized by the overflowing of the rivers. The chiefs of Matamba, formerly tributary to the kings of Congo, are at present independent. The borders of the coast, with the islands of Coango and Coanza, are the only cultivated parts of the country. The natives have little industry. They extract the iron of their territory, without knowing properly how to work it; for they purchase from strangers their implements of agriculture. Unwrought mines of gold are supposed to exist in the mountains.

* Described page 304, among the gazelles of Congo.

† Zucchelli, p. 124. ‡ Labat, t. V. p. 119.

Such is the account of those countries of southern Guinea hitherto known, and in some measure civilized; or, at least, habited by tribes. We will now consider the physical, moral, and political condition of these people.

General character of the natives of Congo.

The negroes of Congo appear to be inferior in understanding to many other African tribes. They possess, however a very good memory; their sentiments, instincts, and desires are gross; their passions quick and fierce; their manners, customs, and general mode of life, in the rustic or primitive state, approach so near to animality, that it is not surprising they should have considered monkies as belonging to their own species. Their stupidity is such, that they have never been able to comprehend the advantage of a mill. The women, who alone perform all the work, are obliged to pound the corn in a wooden mortar, and then to grind it in a hollow stone, by turning about another stone with the hand.* They have not the least idea of writing; their time is divided into day and night, and the day into three parts. They do not, however, understand the period of a year, and reckon by lunations. Their navigation is confined to fishing, for which they make use of boats made of the trunks of trees hollowed out by fire, without any form on the outside. Their nets, which they have attempted to form after the European manner, are equally bad. The coast fortunately abounds in fish. They are equally inexpert in hunting; have no trained dogs, and can only proceed by the eye. The sportsman is some time adjusting his piece, turns his head and fires, drops the piece, runs off as quickly as possible, returns some time after to fetch his gun, which he approaches with trepidation, and if he finds the game, carries it off in triumph. Their courage is not more conspicuous in the wars which they wage among themselves. An army of two hundred men is considered a large and very uncommon armament.† Born in a state of brutish ignorance, at the same time puffed up with pride and vanity, these degraded

Their servility.

* Bruns Afrika, t. IV. p. 57. † De Grandpré, I. 130. and seq.

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beings are, of all masters, the most severe, barbarous, and capricious; the slaves approach them on their knees, and the great, who alone wear slippers, treat the people with an extreme haughtiness; they are compelled to bow their servile faces into the dust. All the people look up to their kings as the greatest monarchs of the globe; these are proud of their prerogative to wear boots when they can procure them, and are often ludicrously dressed in some worn-out European uniform, which barely cover their disgusting nakedness. They consider their country, which is disputed with them by wild beasts, as the most beautiful, delightful, and highly favoured in the world.

Polygamy.

The most unrestrained polygamy exists in Congo, and the whole influence of the Christian religion has been confined to the discouragement of incestuous marriages. The holy state of marriage, the mutual affection of man and wife, and the enjoyments of domestic happiness, are foreign to the ideas of a Congoo; surrounded by a numerous progeny, he feels no attachment to his children.* Drunkenness, noisy music, indecent dances, and sleep, are his enjoyments. Useful works are performed by females, and numberless slaves. A rich man sometimes gives a *vingaré*, or public dinner to the whole village; on those occasions they drink largely of *melaffo*, or palm wine. Their dress is highly fantastical; the princes and lords of Congo, Batta, and Sogno are proud of dressing in a black hat. The great of Lubola attach small bells to their dress. The inhabitants of the countries watered by the *Coango* and the *Coari*, file their teeth until they become as pointed as those of the dog. Some have four of them drawn. In the kingdom of Matamba they universally retain the ancient custom of making incisions into their flesh.

Singular customs.

Husbands.

Among the singular customs in Congo, may be remarked that of husbands going to bed when their wives are delivered. Zucchelli mentions this circumstance. It is,

* Cavazzi and Labat, t. II. p. 427.

moreover, singular, that this custom should be found among so many different nations; moderns have observed it in Béarn, in Tartary, India, and a considerable part of America.* The ancients attest its existence among the Cantabrians,† the Corsicans,‡ and the nations near the Euxine sea.§ It is difficult to explain how the same custom should have been carried to nations so far separated, and such complete strangers to each other. On the contrary, it is easy to explain its origin, by observing the general character of savage nations. The birth of a child is a happy event, and the friends of the parents generally wish them joy on the occasion. In civilized countries, it is the mother who receives the congratulations, in a bed-chamber highly decorated. Among savage nations, where the woman is only a slave, these congratulations are addressed to the husband. For the purpose of receiving these with due solemnity, he reclines either on his hammock or on his bed; he continues there as long as the visits last, and, from idleness, some days longer. That he may not die of hunger, it is necessary that his wife should feed and take care of him.‖

The King's Court.

The King of Congo's court is a wretched imitation of the ancient court of Lisbon: the monarch, as in Europe, sitting on his throne, is attended by black counts and marquisses attired in coarse imitations of the European costume and orders. The Pagan kings have retained the barbarism of their indigenous pomp. The King of Loango in former times, once a-year, and with great ceremony, went out to meet the whole nation, to give a solemn order to the rain to water the earth. It sometimes happened that the clouds obeyed; the people then returned well convinced of the power of their prince.¶ The people having now, however, be-

Prince who works miracles.

* Piso, de Indiæ utriusque re naturali, L. I. p. 14. Pauw, Recherches philosophiques sur les Américains, II. 232.

† Strab. Géog. III. 250 (Almélov.) ‡ Diod. Sic. l. V. p. 250 (Wessel.)

§ Apollon. Rhod. tom. II. v. 1013. Valer. Flaccus, tom. V. v. 150.

‖ Beckmann, Boulanger, Pauw, See our Annales des Voyages, II. p. 366.

¶ Lopez, p. 14. Battel, p. 980.

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come less docile, the king has ceased to order rain and fine weather. One of his ministers at present performs this duty; but that he may shelter, in some measure, his responsibility, he carefully defers ordering the rain until it has fairly begun. The Congos say, their country once formed a mighty empire, the chief of which divided it amongst his three sons, giving to one both sides of the *upper* part of the river as far as Sangalla; to the second, the left or northern bank, *Blindy N'Congo;* to the third, the right bank, *Banze N'Tonga.* The two latter are still considered as separate viceroyalties. The English, in 1816, found Congo divided into a number of petty states, or chenooships, held as a kind of fiefs under some real or imaginary personage living in the interior, nobody knows exactly where. Tuckey* could only learn that the paramount sovereign was designated Blindy N'Congo, and resided at a Banza in the interior, named Congo, six days journey south from the river, where the Portuguese had an establishment, and where there were soldiers and white women. This place is no doubt the San Salvador† of the Portuguese; and whether or not this prince, as is stated, be quite independent, all the other kings of the provinces situated between Cape Lopez and the river Zaïre, do homage to the king of Loango, and pay him a tribute in women. In other respects they are despotic, without opposition: in fits of ill humour they sell their prime ministers to Europeans, and crouch before their vassals when their power is dreaded. They dispose of the liberty and lives of all their subjects, and tax them as they please. A black was fined exorbitantly for having once taken a fancy to use a sedan chair given him by a captain.‡ These kings thus indemnify themselves for particular privations enjoined them by a fundamental law of the state. They are obliged, at least in public, to forego the sweet enjoyment of brandy, since they are not allowed to receive, wear, or

* Tuckey, 196.

† Tuckey, 350.

‡ De Grandpré, I. 190 et suiv.

even touch any foreign production; metals, arms, and works in wood, are excepted. Their domain consists of all the land not occupied, and of some villages. The throne is every where hereditary, except in Loango, to which the princes of many dependent states may aspire, depending on the choice of an electoral body, composed of the seven principal officers of the crown, including two neighbouring lords; which, in the interim, forms a provisional government. By this very ancient arrangement, the complicated nature of which produces some legislator, or conqueror, more sagacious than the ordinary inhabitants, the feudatories have a lively interest in the support of a throne to which they may aspire; and these ties will not be easily dissolved. To be prince-born, he must be the issue of a princess: it is the mother, and not the father, by whom he is ennobled; the latter cannot be certainly known. The princesses also have a right to choose their husbands, and to repudiate them at pleasure, by inviting another to the honour of their bed. The princes may do the same, but their children, who are not the offspring of princesses, have no rank, and may be sold by such of their brothers and sisters as enjoy this advantage. The husband of a princess has the rank of prince during the period of his living with her, and retains his rank for ever if she dies during this interval. If a prince is married to a princess, they lose the power of being divorced. Princes in general enjoy great privileges: they cannot, however, hold any office under the government.

Hereditary

Elective.

At Loango, the principal officers of government, next to the king, are the *Great Captain*,* first minister and chief justice; the *Mafook*, minister of commerce; the *Maquimbe*, inspector-general of the coast, or captain of the port; the *Monibanze*, minister of finance; the *Monibele*, messenger of state; the *King Soldier*, generalissimo of the army, and grand executioner. In the other states, the pre-

Great officers of state.

* In Portuguese *capitano-môr*, whence, by a gallicism, French travellers have made him "*le capitaine mort!!!*"

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sumptive heir to the crown is the second personage; he is called *Mambook*. His situation is in many respects more agreeable than that of the king himself. After him comes the *Macage*, prime minister, who is under the authority of the *Mambook*, and the princes-born; the *Mafook*, the *Maquimbe*, the *Monibanze*, the *Monibele*, the *Great Captain*, who here enjoys the same authority as the *Soldier King* of Loango; then the governors, and the lords paramount.*

Classes of inhabitants

The ranks of society, without regard to office, are thus arranged:—the king and his family, the princes-born, the husbands of princesses, the lords paramount, brokers, merchants, slaves, and vassals. These last constitute the mass of the people. They are obliged to serve, follow, and defend their master, who, on his part, lodges, clothes, and protects them. The merchants compose that immense body who traverse the whole of Africa in search of captives, whom they transfer to Europeans through the medium of brokers. These, although belonging to all the classes, are in high repute, on account of the distinction with which men so useful are treated by Europeans. The lords paramount are land proprietors, not attached to the soil, although serfs of the king and the princes-born.†

Administration of justice.

The king is supreme judge; but as the lords make every endeavour to obtain justice for their vassals, their complaints seldom reach the throne. The lords of the complainants and defendants are the first judges. According to circumstances, the decision of the *Mafook*, or *Maquimbe*, or a *Governor*, or even of the whole body of magistrates, is necessary. The court is public. The spectators, without arms, if the suit is not criminal, range themselves in a circle round a carpet, upon which are placed, at the expense of the parties, bottles of brandy proportioned to the number of assistants; for, no brandy,

* De Grandpré, I. 182.

† De Grandpré, I. 104. Also Tuckey, 366. who names them "*Foomoos*, in fact, the yeomen of the country."

no trial.* Every person has a right to harangue, and each pleading is accompanied with libations mingled with songs. As soon as the sentence is pronounced, the bottles are emptied.

Laws and customs.

Institutions and usages are substituted for written laws. The only capital crimes are stated by Tuckey to be those of murder and adultery. Considering the alacrity with which, from the prince to the *Foomoo*, or private gentleman, they all prostitute their wives and daughters to Europeans, and the resentment expressed by the latter, on the occasional refusal of their favours, the capital punishment of adultery might with some reason be disputed; but the English, in the Congo expedition, were in one instance witnesses to its actual execution.† The criminal was, however, first offered for sale, and the probability is, that the great demand opened by the slave trade, has commuted many capital punishments of former times into the more profitable infliction of foreign slavery. The son of a *chenoo*, or chief, however, cannot compromise his honour; he is held bound to kill the aggressor; and, should he escape, may take the life of the first relation of the adulterer he meets. The reaction produced from this unjust revenge upon relations, which extends even to poisoning and theft, is one of the grand causes of the constant animosities subsisting between neighbouring villages. Poisoning (the only kind of private murder among them) is so frequent, that the master of a slave always makes him taste his cooked victuals before he ventures to eat of them himself; it is well known that the husbands of princesses, who, though chosen against their wills, are by law subject to divorce or slavery, at the pleasure of the latter, frequently rid themselves by this means of their wives and their fears at the same instant. In general, if the offender has committed a theft, he must refund; if the debt amounts to the value of a slave, he becomes one himself, in default of payment; if he has committed adultery, he

* Idem, I. 124. et suiv. † Tuckey, 372.

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must pay to the outraged husband the value of a slave; if he has shed blood, he must either give a slave, or the value of one, in order to prevent his being sold himself; if he has fraudulently sold a black, to whose person he had no claim, or committed a homicide, he is immediately rent in pieces by the people, and his body left to be devoured by birds of prey. Thanks to the universal slavery, *here every man has equal rights.* The princes born alone cannot be sold; the lords paramount, when condemned, are allowed to deliver up one of their vassals in their stead.

When the criminality of the accused is not sufficiently manifest, he is subjected to the trial of poison and of fire, which is directed by the priests. It is probable that these jugglers have some means of rendering the potion presented to the accused either mortal or harmless, according to their pleasure, and of managing the heated iron in such a manner that it may touch and not burn the skin of their friends.* One of the most singular proofs consists in obliging the two parties to drink the infusion of a root called *imbondo,* which has a twofold operation; since this potion either acts by evacuation and secretion of urine, or exerts its influence upon the brain as a narcotic. The people wait to see which of these effects will be produced; the individual soonest affected by it is proclaimed victor; and his unfortunate antagonist, who, after some time, not being able to return it, is seized with vertigo, is considered guilty. "He does not evacuate!" cries the mob, and immediately they assail him with blows until he dies.†

Singular ordeal.

Language of Congo.

It often appears singular to find among illiterate nations, idioms, in which syntax and grammatical arrangement, ingeniously and artfully combined, indicate a meditative mind, at variance with the habitual state of these people. Are these the remains of an extinct civilization,

* Zucchelli, p. 215. Oldendorp, 296.

† Battel, 983. See hereafter, in the article Madagascar, a description of the ordeal of the Tanguin.

and of which every other trace has disappeared? Are they the efforts of some legislators superior to the rest of their country? Are they the remains of ancient sacred languages, used by the people at large after the destruction of the tribes of priests, between whom they formed the bond of communication? In whatever manner it may have arisen, the language of Congo, of which those of Loango and Angola appear to be dialects, is distinguished by very copious and complicated forms. The different articles added to the termination of the substantive whose meaning it determines, the regular formation of derivatives, the numerous modifications of the pronouns, the great variety of moods and tenses of verbs, by which every thing relating to person and locality is expressed, the astonishing number of derivative verbs,* the numerous sounding vowels, the absence of hard sounding consonants, and the softness of the pronunciation, conspire to make this language of an illiterate people one of the finest in the world.† Apparently without any sufficient reason, and without seeming to know that the structure of his own tongue was most perfect when the nation was still involved in barbarism, the peculiar elegance and flexibility of the Congo language has been called in question by the editor of Tuckey's narrative. The affair, however, lies between him and the Congo grammarians we have quoted; our readers will be much more interested to know, that from a comparison of the works of the latter, with a pretty extensive vocabulary collected by Captain Tuckey, it appears,—1. That the languages of Angola, Congo, and Loango, are radically the same: 2. That they are nearly the same as those of

* For example, in the dialect of Loango, we have *Salila*, to facilitate a work; *Salisia*, to work with some one; *Salisila*, to work for the profit of some one; *Salisionia*, to work the one for the other; *Salangana*, to be an able worker, &c. &c.

† Hyacinthi Bruscietti à Vetralla regulæ pro Congensium idiomatis captu, etc.; Rome, 1659. Gentilis Angolæ instructus à P. Coacto; Rome, 1661. Mithridates, by Adelung and Vater, t. III. p. 207—224.

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the *Mandongo* and *Cambo* nations.—3. That all these are allied to the language of the nations on the coast of Mozambique, and to the dialect of the Caffres and Vetjaanas. It follows irresistibly from these conclusions, that southern Africa has been originally peopled from one tribe; or, at least, that a constant and more or less intimate connexion subsists between its most distant nations.*

Arms.

The weapons of the Congos consist of an absurd mixture of bows, sabres made of hard wood, and some bad musketoons. They understand the mode of poisoning their arrows; their battle-axes have the form of a scythe, and must be formidable when wielded by a powerful arm. Some cover themselves with a shield, others with the skins of animals; there are some also who endeavour to give themselves a terrific appearance by painting their bodies with the figures of serpents, and other formidable animals.† The people of Loango, when marching to battle, paint the whole of their body with a red colour.

Religion. Superstitions.

The indigenous superstitions of the Congos are too numerous to be all enumerated. They believe in the existence of some divinities called *Zambi*. The good principle is named Zamba M'Poonga; and the evil principle, which is opposed to him, Caddee M'Peemba, they are said to have some obscure notion of a future state wherein they shall all be happy. The images of these divinities they denominate *mokisso*, and keep them in their temples.‡ The common objects, however, of their devotion, are different kinds of fetiches, or idols, supposed to possess a divine power. This is sometimes a bird's feather, a shark's tooth; occasionally a tree, a serpent, or a toad; the horn, the hoof, the hair, the teeth of all manner of quadrupeds; the beaks, claws, skulls, and bones of birds, heads and skins of snakes, shells, and fins of fishes; pieces of old iron, copper, wood, seeds of plants, and sometimes a mixture of all or most of them strung together. The

* Marsden, in Tuckey, 388, 389.

† Cavazzi, II. 7. ‡ Oldendorp, 320.

vilest things in nature serve for a negro's fetiche; like the witches' caldron in European superstition, they are a compound of every abomination. In the choice of these they consult certain persons called fetiche-men, who form a kind of priesthood. The fetiche, however, is not merely an amulet; prayers, abstinence, and penances are enjoined to its worshippers. The fetiche-man, it seems, can give another more propitious fetiche in exchange of that which is too insensible to the interests of its worshippers; and he has the lucrative power of rendering sacred, or *fetiching*, as it is named in Africa, any part of any man's property he pleases. This power is in all respects similar to the *tabboo* of the South Sea Islands, and not unlike the once terrible *interdict* of the Roman Pontiff. In a word, the fetiche is an amulet, a deity, and a guardian genius; and the rudest sculptures or carving which refer to it are held sacred. Hence the famous fetiche-rock, a huge mass of stone on the banks of the Congo, covered with miserable attempts at sculpture, is held in great veneration.* Fetichism is doubtless one great cause of the ignorance and immorality of the Africans. The Capuchin missionaries saw them worship a goat, which their pious zeal caused to be killed; but the negroes, although converted, were, nevertheless, alarmed on seeing the Capuchins roast and eat a divinity.† The priests are called *gangas;* their chief *Chitomé*, is supposed to possess a divine authority; he receives as a sacrifice the first-fruits, and a sacred fire is constantly kept in his inviolable abode. In the event of his becoming ill, his successor is appointed, who immediately kills him with a club, to prevent his dying a natural death; which would afford a bad omen. Many other subaltern priests work upon the credulity of the negroes; one heals all diseases, another commands both wind and rain; others understand bewitching the waters, or preserving the harvest. Drought is the inherent vice of the climate of Africa, and the frequent destruction of the hopes of the husbandman which

Priests.

* Tuckey. † Zucchelli, 223.

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occurs from this cause, might have given origin to the function of "Rainmaker," among a less superstitious population. Mr. Campbell, an intelligent missionary, met with several men of this profession in the Betjuana country, where they are in high esteem, that district being very subject to drought. They are generally the best informed men of the community, and this explains why their lucrative office is frequently forced upon them, though protesting all the while that they are incapable of producing rain. Others seem seriously to believe they possess this power.

To procure rain, an ox is killed; the fat of it is chopped and mixed with different kinds of wood and leaves of trees; the whole are then burned. The secret of the business is to gain time by various artifices, until the rainmaker sees clouds arising in that direction from which rain generally comes. His reward is very considerable. The *N'quits* are members of a sacred fraternity, who celebrate dreadful mysterious rites, accompanied with lascivious dances, in the deep recesses of forests. One order of magicians, called *Atombala*, pretend to the power of raising the dead; their juggles practised upon a dead body, in the presence of the missionaries, so far imposed upon them, that they imagined they saw the dead move, and believed they heard some inarticulate sounds proceed from his mouth, which they attributed to the power of infernal spirits. May not this have been a galvanic operation?

Raising the dead.

The Christian missionaries struggle with very little success against these monstrous superstitions. There was a time, when the apostles of the faith boasted of reckoning among their flock all the princes of Lower Guinea, particularly those of Congo, and of having likewise assembled round the sign of the cross all their subjects. The negroes, in fact, naturally fond of imitation, easily conform to the example of their chiefs. They embrace the religion which they are commanded to follow; but abandon it as readily whenever the prince, equally inconstant as the people, returns to his former mode of worship.* Sogno

Christian missions.

* Labat. t. I. p. 37.

attracted the favour of the apostolic missionaries, and perfectly justified the confidence entertained of its inhabitants. According to some accounts, they all embraced Christianity, and their example was followed by the whole of Congo.* Faithful to the new religion, they still continued to abhor idolatry in 1776. They transmitted the Christian mysteries from father to son, and assembled regularly on Sunday to sing psalms, although their children were not allowed by the priests to be baptized, nor themselves to celebrate the holy sacraments.

In 1816, Tuckey found the Christian religion nearly extinct on the banks of the Congo. At Noki, the crucifixes left by the missionaries were strangely mixed with native fetiches, and no trace of the Portuguese missions appeared on its northern bank. Even at Shark Point, in the centre of Sogno, the number of idolaters seemed to predominate. The few who professed Christianity came on board, loaded with crucifixes, and satchels containing the relics of saints. One Sogno was a priest, having a diploma from the capuchins of Loanda. He and another man had learned to write their own names, and that of Saint Anthony, and could also *read* the litany in Latin. He had one wife and five concubines,—a proof that the Portuguese missionaries have found it necessary to relax on a point which was one great cause of their former failures. This barefooted apostle contended, that Saint Peter, in confining him to *one* wife, did not prohibit him from as many concubines as he pleased.† In 1813, the Sognos killed several of the missionaries, and cut off a Portuguese trading pinnace,—a fact which sufficiently confirms the testimony of M. Grandpré, given below.‡ Perhaps the Roman Catholic religion is in itself not well adapted to spread the light of civilization: yet we find that, where its missionaries have had the education and habits of gentlemen, they have seldom wanted success. The jesuits of China and Paraguay may be cited as examples; and the

* Proyart, 210. † Tuckey, 80. 277. 369. ‡ Tuckey, 110.

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failure in Congo may fairly be attributed to the rude ignorance and bigotry of the clergy, chiefly monks, who were employed in the mission. May they afford a warning to other more liberal churches, engaged in the same noble, but difficult pursuit!

French missionaries.

Respecting the countries situated to the north of the Zaïre, the French missionaries, who proceeded from Nantes to preach Christianity in Loango in 1768, finally made choice of Cacongo for the principal residence of their ministry. They immediately endeavoured to gain the chiefs, and were well received. Strong in the protection of the king, who lodged them in his palace, they established a chapel, and had the satisfaction to witness the negroes of Sogno, whom trade had brought to Kingale, come to assist at mass. Sickness, however, obliged these priests, in 1770, to quit the country. Three years after, others arrived from France, who fixed their abode in a plain near the village of Kilonga. In 1775, they discovered, in their neighbourhood, a Christian community from Sogno, whose inhabitants had obtained permission from the king of Cacongo to settle in his states, where they put a desert country into a state of cultivation. This colony formed a small province, containing four thousand Christians. Manguenzo was the principal village. The French priests baptized many children, and were well paid in yacca-root, maize, peas, and she-goats. Their intention then was to establish a seminary of negroes. Don Juan, the chief of the colony, was about to build two churches. They were in want of sacred vessels, and other objects of the first necessity. To fill up the measure of their misfortunes, many members of the mission died, and others found themselves loaded with infirmities, towards the year 1776, when the last reports were transmitted to Europe. A modern traveller, however, contradicts these flattering accounts, and positively asserts, that the Sognese have not in any degree maintained the zeal they formerly shewed for their conversion;* according to him, these savages, naturally

Contradictory accounts.

* De Grandpré, t. II. p. 37.

treacherous and cowardly, have become notorious by the poisoning and assassination of the missionaries; and their universal character for perfidy has sometimes caused them to be loaded with irons when sold to Europeans. A French priest, says M. de Grandpré, in another place,* was zealous in the performance of his duty; but the picture of eternal life, however brilliant he might paint it, did not attract the Congoos. The abodes of paradise appeared to them the less desirable, from their being denied the use of brandy; they complained much of this, and preferred a voyage to France, where they might enjoy that precious liquor; and thus the missionary was unable to make proselytes. At length, one of them, overcome by the entreaties of the priest, consented to compromise, and engaged to go to paradise; inquiring at the same time, how much merchandize he should gain by it. "None, whatever," answered the priest. "Let us understand each other," replied the black; "I ask you how much merchandize you will give me for performing the voyage which you propose." The missionary, with mildness, repeated his answer in the negative, adding, at the same time, every thing that he could to persuade him. The other replied in his bad French: "Hold you there! Think that I will go all that way for nothing? Give me goods for it." The missionary insisted at least upon his being baptized, but he could obtain no other answer than "Give goods, give brandy." This, continues M. de Grandpré, is not the only instance of fruitless missions. He was witness to one which arrived from Rochelle, in 1777; it was composed of four Italian priests, full of zeal, who introduced themselves into the district of the Sognese, well loaded with presents, and every thing which might insure success; in fact, two of them succeeded in introducing themselves, and wrote to the two others, requiring them also to come and join them. In the course of ten days, says our author, I saw them return, quite alarmed, even doubt-

* De Grandpré, t. I. p. 91.

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ing their own existence; they were many days in recovering from their fright; and we learnt that, on their arrival, they had found their two former companions prisoners, dead, and buried. They expected to have met with the same fate, and one of them, wholly resigned, thought only of administering to himself spiritual comfort; the other, however, being younger, more spirited, and tenacious of life, continued to deceive the blacks, by persuading them that he had left behind him the greatest part of the presents intended for them, which would not be delivered, except to the two missionaries in person. The negroes, though determined upon poisoning them in their turn, at the same time were anxious to be in possession of the presents, and furnished them with hammocks to return to the coast. Thus ended the mission. In a climate, however, which is naturally so hostile to European constitutions, the fate of these newly arrived missionaries may readily be explained, without having recourse to poisoning, of which the known frequency could not but alarm the terrified and ignorant imaginations of the two survivors.

Reflections

In duly considering these circumstances, the blacks are not probably so much to blame, as, at first sight, might appear; the missionaries often brought upon themselves an unfortunate termination of their ministry; had they permitted the fathers of families to finish their career in their own way, and had applied themselves solely to the conversion of the young, success might in time have rewarded their zeal. This was not the case; they were able to speak only a very few words of the language of these people, and could, therefore, neither explain nor reason with them upon any subject; they nevertheless began by imposing upon them the most sensible privations, by wishing to subject them at once to all the peculiarities of the most rigid worship. Polygamy is generally prevalent in a burning climate, where the temperament of the inhabitants renders physical enjoyments necessary. Many missionaries have been known to employ force to deprive them of their wives; and as persons in power generally afford examples

for others, it was upon these that they first attempted to exercise their apostolic authority. What attachment could they expect from men guided by simple nature, who considered them as persons merely come to torment them, to impose upon them habits of slavery; who only addressed them in the language of reproach, and were even willing to bring down upon their families trouble and confusion, by compelling them to repudiate their wives, and deprive their children of mothers.

Neighbouring tribes of Congo.

It now remains for us to make a few observations on the tribes altogether illiterate, which are to be found on the borders of Congo.

The Bake-Bake.

To the north of Loango, ancient travellers place a nation of dwarfs, called *Matembas* or *Bake-Bake*. They are, by them, said to be of the size of children of twelve years old, but very stout; to live in the interior of unfrequented forests, where they hunt elephants, the teeth of which they pay as a tribute to a prince called *Many Kesock*, who lives about eight days journey towards the east of Mayomba. Their women go into the woods to kill the great pongo monkeys with poisoned arrows.* In the interior, and more towards the east, is the country of *Anziko*, or Anzikana, *N'teka* or *Great Angeca*,† rich in metals and sandal-wood, but particularly famed for the uncivilized state of its inhabitants. According to accounts probably fabulous, or at least exaggerated, of this distant and little known country, the Anziquas or Anziquois, deliver their sick prisoners to butchers, who expose their flesh for sale in the public markets. The natives, when tired of their lives, or misled by a false point of honour, are said sometimes to offer themselves for slaughter. Even parents and children devour each other. M. de Grandpré would appear to doubt this report; he even denies that there are in Africa any Anthropophagi. "If the travels of Mungo Park, in countries where Mahometanism has reached, do not altogether refute the imputation of cannibalism, thrown

Country of Anziko.

Anthropophagi.

* Battel. p. 983. † Battel. 981 : Dapper, 553 ; Proyart. 8.

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out against the Africans, what can be said against the testimony of Levaillant, whose steps have been directed towards nations altogether barbarous, entire strangers to every species of civilization, and among whom he has not found any thing to justify an accusation so unjust? I can certify, for my own part, that the report of the blacks of Congo eating human flesh, is false; these people are mild, timid, and indolent; they, in general, have a horror at the shedding of blood, and any man among them who wounds another to this extent, is condemned either to give a slave, or its value in merchandize; and if the aggressor has not the means, he is himself sold?"*

Manners of the Anziquas.

The Anziquas are excellent archers, and handle the battle-axe in a superior manner. They are very nimble, courageous, and intrepid. They are considered faithful in their transactions with others. They sometimes carry for sale to the coast fine stuffs made of palm leaves, and other things fabricated by them, also ivory and slaves, either procured in their own country or in Nubia. The merchandize which they take in return consists of cowries and other shells with which they ornament themselves, salt, silk-stuffs, linen, glass ware, and other European manufactures. Circumcision is performed on both sexes, as they cut their faces as an ornament. The women are covered from head to foot; the great wear either robes of silk, or coats of cloth; the upper part of the body, among the common people, is naked, and their hair braided. Their language is harsh, and appears to be merely a dialect of the common idiom found throughout the whole of lower Guinea.†

Cities and provinces.

The extent and situation of Anziko has been so indicated as rather to excite the curiosity of the geographer than to satisfy it. Dapper places *Monsol*, the capital, three hundred leagues from the coast, and describes the country as bordering on *Gingiro*, which is near Abyssinia. Pigafetta makes a river called *Umbre* which really enters the

* De Grandpré, t. I. p. 211. † Lopez, p. 14.

Congo, to flow into the Anziko; he places towards the east or north-east the kingdom of *Wanga*, in which one might be tempted to discover Wangara. The king of Anziko is called the *Makoko;* under his government are thirteen vassal kings, among whom may be remarked the king of *Fungeni*, because this name recals to the mind the *Fungi* of Nubia, who, according to their own traditions, originally came from the southern parts of Africa.

The missionary Oldendorp, from inquiries made of the negroes of the West-Indies, learned the existence of a nation called *Mokko*, bordering on the *Ibbos*, which may be identical with the inhabitants of Anziko, subjects of *Makoko*. Mokko

This nation lives in perpetual hostility with the *Evos*, who appear to be the same as the *Evis*, of whose existence Mr. Salt heard accounts at Mosambique, as inhabiting a country nearer the Atlantic than the Indian sea.

# BOOK LXX.

## AFRICA.

*Continuation of the description of Africa.—The Cape, and the country of the Hottentots.*

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Coasts of Cimbebas.

THE coast which extends from Cape Negro to the mouth of the united *Orange* and *Fisch* rivers, 150 miles S. E. of *Angra Pequena*, is little known, of dangerous access, and scarcely inhabited. The Portuguese, proceeding from Brazil to Benguela, observed cape Negro, and upon its point have erected a marble column bearing the arms of Portugal. To the south of the Cape, the river *Bemba-Roughe*, half a league wide, empties itself into the sea; both its banks are inhabited. Cape *Rui-Pirez* still bears the surname *das Neves* or of snows; this epithet, however, has originated from hillocks of white sand. Cape *Frio*, or cold, *l'Angra Fria*, or cold point; also *la Praya das Neves*, or region of snows, owe their names to illusions or impressions of the moment. The high mountains terminate at cape Serra. Many peaks of small elevation line the bay *Walvrisch*, or the bay of Whales, which is the same as the *Angra do Ilheo* of the Portuguese. Little more is known of the small gulph of St. Thomas. The whole of this coast was visited in detail, more than twenty years ago, by an English expedition, with a view of selecting a place for transportation; they did not find one spot favourable for cultivation, or which did not appear too wretched even for criminals. Water that can be drank is very scarce; the rivers at their mouths have

nothing but brackish water; and traces of verdure are only to be seen in partial situations.*

Inhabitants.

Behind this inhospitable coast is marked the wandering horde of *Cimbebas*, whose prince is called *Mataman*, and that of *Macasses*, or rather *Makosses*, visited by a French traveller, whose narrative is very scarce.† The existence even of the Cimbebas rests upon very doubtful authority. They appear, however, to be known by the Makosses, under the name of *Maquemanes*. The country of the Makosses has an extent of 30 leagues; hares are here so numerous that they may be killed by a stick. Horned cattle constitute the riches of these wanderers, who generally change the pasturage every two years, and who have no other clothing than the hide of an ox.‡ They are circumcised at the age of eighteen, do not eat fish, and believe in magicians, in poisoners, and in an evil genius, who sends them rain, thunder, and storms. The sweet seeds of a plant which grows rapidly to the height of ten or twelve feet, is used by them to make a sort of cake; a sort of grain supplies them with an inebriating drink. The Macasses appear to enjoy the conveniencies of life, those who have two or three thousand head of cattle are not considered rich. Theft is punished by them very severely. There is great decency in their external appearance. Every thing leads us to conclude that this tribe is a branch of the Betjuanas, or of the Caffre Koussas, who inhabit the eastern coast.§ Having passed the common opening of the *Fisch* and Orange River, we enter the country of the Hottentots, comprehended between the Orange and Koussie River; which, together with the territory of the colony of the Cape,

Manners of the Makosses.

Physical region of the Cape.

* Notes communicated by Sir Home Popham to M. Correa de Serra. Notes of Wood, in the Nautical Instructions of Dalzel.

† Lajardière, German translation in Ehrmann, Bibliothèque des Voyages et de Géographie, t. III. M. Boucher de la Richardière says, in his Bibliothèque des Voyages, that he has not been able to find the original—we have not been more successful.

‡ Ehrmann, III. 360.

§ See hereafter, book LXXI.

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forms only one *physical region.* The territory of the Cape of Good Hope has for its limits to the north and north-east, a vast chain of mountains, called the Nieuweldt, and Roggeweldt, which separate it from the Betjuanas, Bushmen, and other independent tribes; to the east, the Great Fisch river, the Rio d'Infante of the Portuguese, which separates it from Caffraria; to the west by the Atlantic Ocean, from the mouth of Koussie River, to the promontory of the Cape, or more properly to Cape Laguillas, about thirty miles farther south; and from hence again to the Great Fisch river, its southern boundary is fixed by the waters of the South Sea. Such were the limits assumed at the cession of this country to the English by the Dutch in 1806; but it appears that some circumstances connected with the attacks of the Caffres have occasioned the eastern boundary of the British settlement to be advanced to the river Keiskamma,* about thirty-two miles to the N. E. of the Great Fisch. We design, however, under the physical region marked by the mouths of the Orange and Great Fisch rivers, to comprehend also the description of the interior, as far as is known; and what we are about to deliver may probably apply, not only to all the countries south of Congo and Monomotapa, but also to the whole plateau of Mocaranga and the deserts of the Jagas; further observation must decide this question.

Rivers.

The parts of this north region of the Cape, more or less known, are watered by two large rivers, the lesser *Fisch*, and the *Gariep*, or Orange. The Orange may be said to commence at *Campbell's Dorp*, 600 miles directly east from its mouth; being formed there by the confluence of the *Yellow River*, which arises among the mountains at *Khing* and *Vattaba*, two sources, at least 350 miles to the N.E. of Campbell's Dorp, and 800 miles from the mouth of the Orange;—the *Arrowsmith*, or *Malalareen* river, the *Alexander*, the *Craddock*. Formerly the Krooman river fell into the Orange 360 miles nearer its mouth; but it is

* Campbell's Map, second journey into Africa.

now a dry bed. Mr. Campbell, in 1820, met with natives who remembered its flowing much farther into the desert. The free Hottentot country between the south bank of the Orange, and the Koussie, is called Little *Namaqua* territory, whilst the region adjacent to its north bank, named the Great Namaqua territory, gives origin to the *Konup*, or Fisch river, by many tributary streams which issue from its *Copper Mountains*. The course is nearly south; it has been traced about 300 miles north from the point where it falls into the Orange, to the country of the Dammaras. The rivers *Elephant* (from the west) and *Berg* take the same direction, but they issue from sloping declivities brought nearer to each other on the western side. Some other rivers, which run from north to south, issue from the sides of sloping declivities; their course is not long; the great Fisch River (*Groote Visch*) terminates the territory of the Cape. All these rivers, swelled by the periodical rains, carry along much mud and sand; forced back by the sea, these matters form impediments at their mouth; or, in the dry season, the rivers, reduced to a small body of water, are lost in the sands, or among the rocks.* Cascades, but little picturesque, interrupt the course of these rivers; they are useful in fertilizing, by their inundations, a part of their banks.

Description of the Karroos.

Between the sloping declivities, improperly denominated chains of mountains, are extended plains destitute of running water, called *Karroos*. These plains are not wholly barren deserts, as represented by inaccurate travellers. Of these *Karroos*, the one best known, which is bounded on the east by the hills of Camdebo, has been described by two accurate observers, Patterson,† and Lichtenstein.‡ The soil of the Karroo is a bed of clay and sand, having the colour of yellow ochre from particles of iron: at the depth of one or two feet is found solid rock, of which this bed appears to be a decomposition. Dur-

* Lichtenstein, Voyage to the Cape, I. passim.

† Patterson, voyage trad. de Forster, 40.

‡ Lichtenstein, Voyage to the Cape, I. 193.

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ing the dry season, the rays of the sun reduce the soil nearly to the hardness of brick; fig-marygolds, and other fleshy plants, alone retain the remains of verdure; the roots of *gorteria*, star-wort, *berckheya*, as well as those of lilies, defended by an almost ligneous covering, scarcely survive under this sun-scorched crust. These roots, nourished by the rain in the wet season, swell under the earth; the young shoots develop themselves, and rise all at once, covering the plain, a short time only before so dry, with a bright verdure; very soon the lilies and marygolds display their brilliant colours, and fill the air with the most exquisite perfumes. At that time, the nimble antelopes and the ostrich descend from the neighbouring mountains in great numbers. The colonists lead down their herds from all points, which acquire new vigour in this rich pasturage. The possession of these natural meadows is not disputed; they are sufficiently extensive for the purposes of every one. The colonists, indeed, seek the conversation of their companions, and endeavour to draw closer the bonds of friendship and affinity to families from whom they are separated at other seasons by immense distances.

Pastoral life of the colonists.

The life of the *Karroo*, is a representation of the golden age for the people of the Cape. Only slight labour interrupts its uniformity, and renders it more lucrative; the children of the slaves collect the branches of two shrubs, called *channa*,* from which potash is extracted. The adults are employed in tanning hides for clothing and shoes. The beauty, however, of the Karroo lasts only one month, unless some lingering showers continue to protract vegetable life. The sun's rays, during the month of August, on account of the increasing length of the day, have a destructive influence: the plants become dried up, the soil is hardened, and on all sides the desert reappears. Men and animals soon abandon these situations, henceforth uninhabitable. Such vegetables as the *Atriplex albicans*, and the *Polygalas*, which resist its influence, become covered with a grey crust; a powder of the same

* Salsola aphylla and Salicornia fruticosa.

colour is spread over the fleshy plants, which continue to be nourished by the air. Every where is seen a soil burnt up, covered with a blackish dust, the only remains of vegetables dried up. It is thus that life and death succeed each other here in eternal rotation.

Composition of the mountains.

The mountains of this extremity of the African continent, are, as has already been observed, enormous declivities: they are the sections of those terraces by which the central plateau descends towards the sea. The direction of these mountains is generally from north-west to south-east: their termination is more abrupt towards the west and south than towards the east, where, being continued under the waters of the ocean, they form dangerous rocks. These mountains constitute the leading feature of the Cape territory. They consist of three successive ranges, parallel to each other, and nearly so to the southern coast, which trends to the north. The first range, *Lange Kloof*, or Long Pass, at the distance of twenty to sixty miles, runs parallel to the coast, widening as it proceeds towards the west. The second, named *Zwarte Berg*, or Black Mountain, is considerably higher and more rugged, consisting often of double, or even triple ranges. The belt of land interposed between this ridge and the former is nearly equal to that between the former and the sea; at an average from twenty to sixty miles. It is, however, of considerably greater elevation. Beyond, namely to the N.W. of the Zwarte Berg, at an interval of 80 or 100 miles, soars the lofty Nieuveldt's Gebirge, the highest range of southern Africa, the summits of which, as it is said, are generally covered with snow. It must be confessed, however, that the intense light of this climate, reflected from the white clouds that often crown these distant summits, may frequently become a source of error.* The greatest height of the Nieuveldt's Gebirge has not been measured, but has been supposed not less than 10,000 feet. The belt or plain between this, the New-land Mountain, and the Black Mountain, is considerably higher than the two above described, and hence we

* Campbell's Second Journey.

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have said that Southern Africa presents a succession of terraces, from which its rivers descend to the sea. The plain next the latter is covered with a deep and fertile soil, watered by numerous rivulets, well clothed with grass, and a beautiful variety of trees and shrubs. Rains are frequent, and from this circumstance, the irrigation of its rivulets, abundant vegetation, and proximity to the sea, it enjoys a more mild and equable temperature than the other plateaus of the colony. The second pass, or terrace, contains a considerable proportion of well watered and fertile lands; but these are mixed with large tracts of arid desert, called Karoo. The third belt is named the Great Karoo; because, like the smaller, its soil is of the hard impenetrable texture we have just described; a vast plain, 300 miles long, and nearly 100 in breadth, without almost a trace of vegetation. Granite, which, on the western side, is only found at the height of one hundred and fifty feet above the level of the sea, is found on the banks of the river Kaiman at fifty feet: flinty slate, which is wrought at the height of two hundred and fifty feet near the Cape, is continued into the sea on the shores of the bays of Plettenberg and Algoa.* The grey sand-stone forms chains of great extent, among others the *Piquet Mountains*, in which the most elevated beds having been broken and cut asunder by some physical revolution, gives an appearance of towers and embattled walls.

Table Mountain.

The shore of Table-Bay, upon which the mountain of that name rises to the height of 3582 feet, by a declivity so gentle that it has been ascended on horseback from the south, is supported by a bed of ferruginous schistus, in parallel furrows, in a direction from south-east to north-west, which interrupt veins of granite and quartz. On the surface of the schistus is a stratum of ochrous clay, containing patches of brown mud: this proceeds from the decomposition of granite, which is found contained in immense blocks, five hundred feet above the level of the sea;

* Lichtenstein, t. I. p. 327. (In the text there is 1502,500 feet; but this must be a mistake. See hereafter Barrow.)

then commence stratified rocks composed of various kinds of free-stone, traversed by veins of hematite. These beds of sand-stone support a mass of quartz a thousand feet high, greyish, shining, reduced into powder, or degenerating into free-stone, according to the exposure. The mountain has no trace of shells, impressions, or petrifactions.* No lime-stone has hitherto been found. An ore of iron is found in many places,† but it has not been worked. Since the year 1685, rich ores of copper have been found, little worked, by the Hottentots-Dammaras, who have given their name to the *copper mountains.*‡ Springs of petroleum are frequent; the richest lands are often so much impregnated with nitrous salts, and so much covered by a crust from the efflorescence of these salts, as to be rendered unfit for cultivation.§ Common salt, also abundant, is more useful to the inhabitants; they call the basin wherein the briny waters are collected, salt pans, (*sout-pan.*)

Minerals.

In the interior of the colony are found various mineral waters, of which the most esteemed are those called the hot-baths; these are found near the Black Mountains, thirty leagues from the city. A spacious building has lately been constructed for the convenience of those who use the baths; it is divided into two parts, the one set apart for the whites and the other for the negroes.‖ Another is described to the north of Orange River.¶

The country whose soil we have just described enjoys the mildest temperature in respect to heat, Fahrenheit's thermometer seldom rising above the hundredth degree. In a meteorological register** kept at Cape Town, from

Temperature. Winds and Seasons.

* Barrow, t. I chap. I.

† Thunberg, t. p. 129. 157; II. 86. trad. allem.; Sparmann, 124. 601, trad. allem.

‡ Patterson, 66. 123. trad. de Forster.

§ Lichtenstein, I. 108.

‖ Manuscript Notice of the Cape, by M. Epidariste Collin, of the Isle of France.

¶ Campbell's Map, second journey.

** Colebrooke's State of the Cape in 1822, p. 370

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September 1818, to September 1821, embracing a period of three years, the highest heat marked is 96°, the lowest 45° Fahrenheit. The mean annual temperature scarcely 68°.—Of winter 61°, of summer 89°. Of the warmest month 79°, of the coldest 57½° Fahrenheit. In short it corresponds as nearly to Funchal, the capital of Madeira, in climate, as it does in latitude and longitude, though in an opposite direction. The mean annual temperature is the same; only the winters are something colder, and the summers warmer at the Cape than in Madeira.* Hence the Cape has, with great propriety, been named the Madeira of the southern hemisphere, and is a celebrated resort for the invalids of India, who frequently retire from this salubrious climate, with full renovation of their health and vigour. It may be doubted if so exact a correspondence between the isothermal curve, and the identical parallel of latitude in opposite hemispheres, is to be found any where else without the tropics. The barometer ranges from 29.6 to 30.54.—mean 30. 18.; but the winds produce very disagreeable effects. The season which is here called summer, continues from the month of September until the end of March; the wind blows from the south-east, and often with great violence. Nothing can be secured from the sands which it drives before it; they penetrate the closest apartments, and the best closed trunks. At this time it is not prudent to go out without spectacles, lest the eyes should be injured. These winds begin soon after the Table Mountain is observed to be covered with a mist, which is called its mantle; they generally last four or five successive days, and are very distressing. From March to September, the north-west wind prevails, it is accompanied by pleasant weather, or rains, which are almost constant during the months of June and July. In different parts of the country the meteorological phenomena are much varied, according to the direction and height of the mountains of the interior. The

* Humboldt's Isothermal Table.

higher chain of mountains attract the clouds.* In the country of Houtiniqua, on the south-east coast, during the month of October storms of rain are frequent, accompanied with dreadful peals of thunder.†

Vegetable beauties of the Cape.

The enthusiasm of botanists, added to the great number of new plants furnished by the Cape, has represented the vegetation of this country in brilliant colours. The philosopher, it must be admitted, finds more wonders to admire in this, than in any other country; it is from hence that we have received the most magnificent plants that adorn our greenhouses and gardens; many others, however, not less beautiful, continue strangers to European culture. The class of bulbous plants may be considered as one of the most characteristic of the flowers of the Cape; since no where else are they to be found so numerous, so various, and so beautiful. The botanist may here admire the numberless varieties of the *Ixia*, their brilliant colours, and exquisite scent; he will find it difficult to count the superb species of the iris; the morell, the corn-flag, the amaryllis, the *Hœmanthus*,‡ the *pancratium*, which, after the autumnal rains, are to be seen covering the fields and the foot of the mountains. During the other seasons, the *Gnaphalium*, the *Xeranthemum*§ display their red, blue, or silky white flowers; the sweet smelling *Geranium*, and a thousand other plants and heaths vary this rich scene. Even in the midst of stony deserts are seen fleshy plants, the stapelia, the *mesembryanthemum*, euphorbia, crassula, the cotyledon and aloë. Some attain the height of trees, which, together with the weeping willow, or the different species of *Mimosa*, shade the banks of torrents produced or enlarged by the rains. The silver-leaved protea imparts to the groves of the Cape a metallic splendour, while one of the numerous species of heath,‖ gives the appearance of a carpet of hair. The Cape olive-tree,

Groves and forests.

* Masson, Philos. Transactions for 1766. p. 296.

† Thunberg, t. I. 165.

‡ Hæmanthus coccineus, et puniceus, Thunberg, I. 255.

§ Xeranthemum fulgidum et speciosissimum, L.

‖ Erica tomentosa, Masson, p. 299.

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and the sophora, a tree like the ash,* furnish some wood for joinery, but they are in want of building and fire wood.

Oaks.

"Nevertheless," says a Frenchman who has visited the Cape four times successively, "forests of magnificent oaks exist in the east of False Bay, in that part called Hottentot-Holland. The English builder-general at the Cape, and my friend Camille Roquefeuil, from whom I have received this account, have examined this wood with minute attention, and consider it the same as the Albanian oak, which, as is well known, is the best for building, on account of its quality and hardness. If at some future period they should cut down these forests, the Cape will readily find a market for its woods; our islands will no doubt avail themselves of it for building and repairing ships."† It is towards the east in particular, on the frontiers of the establishment, that forests are found. They have not yet been accurately examined. They furnish iron and hassagay wood, yellow wood, some species of zamia or the palm-sago;‡ the gayac with scarlet flowers, the *strelitzia reginae* of incomparable beauty.

Defects of Vegetation.

Such are the vegetable beauties of the Cape. It is true that the visit of every naturalist enriches the science with some new species of shrub, or plant; and the researches of M. Lalande in 1819, 1820, at the expense of the French government, are expected to add an immense catalogue to the individuals already known;§ it must, however, be frankly acknowledged, that the vegetation of this African country does not satisfy either the eye or the ideas of an European. Rocks and sands every where prevail. The fields are separated by deserts; the green turf, scattered and thin, no where presents a close bed of verdure; the forests, filled with pointed trees, possess neither a delicious coolness, nor a solemn darkness. Nature is here more

* Ekebergia capensis, Thunberg, t. II. 53. 95.

† Manuscript Notice of M. Epidariste Collin, of the Isle of France.

‡ Cycas capensis, Thunberg, Acta Societ. Upsal, II. p. 283.

§ Colebrooke, p. 2.

imposing than beautiful; she has more caprices than charms; and a plant, however elegant, when arranged neatly in the green houses of Europe, cuts a very different figure on a solitary mass of sand and clay, the general soil of the Karroo. Nature is said to divide her favours; and for the elegance of colour and structure which she has lavished on the Flora of the Cape, to have withheld that sweetness whose aroma fills the gardens of Europe. Hence it is a common saying,* "that in South Africa flowers have no smell, birds no song, rivers no fish;" the latter part of the remark is not quite correct; but it explains why the Dutch have bestowed the appellative of *Fish*, and *Great Fish*, on the two rivers which bound the territory. May not this inadequacy of the Cape sun to sublime the volatile and aromatic juices of vegetables, explain in some measure the acknowledged general inferiority of Cape raisins, wine, and brandy? The singular gratefulness of the Constantia wine is almost solely referable to a favourable peculiarity of situation.†

It is to be lamented that the English government at the Cape have suffered the fine Botanic garden, and menagerie, established there by the Dutch, to fall into total decay. By encouraging the indigenous botany of South Africa, inestimable advantages might accrue to the agriculturists of the Cape, and the useful knowledge reflected from it to the mother country would amply repay her, should this rich colony be found unable or unwilling to support the establishment.

Culture has introduced many European plants. The vine, which was originally brought from Madeira, produces here an excellent wine. The plants of the muscadel vine brought from the South of France thrive well; the Frontignac and Lavelle wines procured from the Cape, are nearly equal in flavour to those from which they originate; finally, the famous Constantia, which is produced from

Culture. Vineyards.

* Colebrooke, 158. † Ibid, 510.

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plants originally brought from Chiraz in Persia, possesses a flavour not found in any of our wines. The pontac of Constantia is pure ambrosia; it is far superior to French pontac, which our connoisseurs nevertheless admire.* If the inhabitants of the Cape better understood their interest, and would abandon their beaten tracks, they would much increase the high character of their wines, and this colony, agreeable to Bank's plan, might become the great vineyard of England.

The Constantia wine, already so exquisite, does not seem susceptible of much improvement, but the other varieties, sold in England to the amount of 5000 pipes per annum, under the appellations of *Cape wine*, and *Cape Madeira*, have an earthy taste, a dilute flavour of muscadel, and in most instances, an undisguised taste of brandy. The first fault is said to be derived from the argillaceous soil on which the vine stocks grow, and with which the grapes may occasionally come in contact. It is never met with in wine produced from a soil of decomposed feltspar, and most probably is proportionate to the quantity of clay in the soil of the vineyard; but the sole cause of this, and the other vices, *being found so generally* in these wines, is the avarice or mismanagement of the Cape merchants, who vainly endeavour to correct them by mingling up all sorts together with a large addition of their wretched brandy. So great has been the depreciation of these wines from this cause, combined with over production, that the 6909 pipes of wine, which were the annual produce of 1806 for exportation, were actually worth more than the 10,000 pipes of 1821. The whole colony is computed to grow 22,400,100 bearing vines, equivalent to 21,333 pipes, and to be easily capable of producing double this quantity: but as the colony alone consumes above 6500† pipes annually, and the population has increased above one-half since 1806, namely from 75,145, to 116,044, the present

* Manuscript Notes of M. E. Collin.

† Colebrooke, p. 115.

dismay of wine merchants and planters, from the low prices, must speedily be removed, by the rectifying influence of a demand increasing so much faster than the supply. That over production is the chief cause of the present depression, is sufficiently demonstrated by Constantia wine having fallen nearly in the same ratio (from 200 to 150 rix dollars, the ninteen gallon cask,) as the other and faulty wines of the Cape. Of these there are no less than 150 varieties known, though all proceeding from no more than eleven different species of the vine.

Fruit trees.

It is pleasant to observe, among the numerous gardens surrounding the city, the fruits of Europe growing by the side of the fruits of Asia; the chesnut, the apple, and other trees of the coldest countries, with the banana, the jambosade, and many other trees of the torrid zone. The learned M. Poivre mentions having seen at the Cape the palm and the camphor tree of Borneo; he even speaks of these trees having been propagated there; we are assured, however, that none exists there now, yet without being told whether their culture has been tried. The fruits of Europe, such as cherries and apples, have somewhat degenerated; but figs, apricots, almonds, and oranges, are here as delicious as in France. The fruits of India are more rare; the maraka and the pine-apple are wholly unknown. Vegetables grow well; all those of Europe are to be found, and even the artichoke, although Levaillant declares he had never seen it; wheat, barley, and oats are successfully cultivated; rice does not grow. Its cultivation was formerly tried in the environs of the Bay of St. Helena; but the attempt was fruitless; the yacca root is also unknown.

Different attempts at culture.

Olive trees have been transported to the Cape; they did not immediately thrive, and the inhabitants have not made any further attempts. The cultivation of the cotton tree has been tried; the south-east winds, however, cause the sand to penetrate even the interior, and give it a yellow colour. Two species of wild indigo are found at the Cape; they appear never to have attempted its manipulation; the cultivation of that of Benzuela was tried, and abandon-

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ed. Flax yields two crops in the year, and hemp is abundant; but they have not yet been able to make either linen or cordage. The Dutch East India Company had attempted latterly the culture of tea, and had tolerably succeeded; the English, it is said, have destroyed all the shrubs, to prevent their commerce with China being injured. Late authors again advise its cultivation.*

Animals.

Here, as in all other situations, the wild beasts have retired before man; lions only are seen near *Sunday* River; the deserts, however, even in the vicinity of the Cape, resound with the roaring of wolves and hyænas. The jackal of the Cape† and the tyger-cat‡ are also common. A particular species of badger is observed.§ The mangust of the Cape‖ and the gerbois¶ are scattered through all these countries. The hunters of the Cape pursue the numerous species of antelopes. The most beautiful of them all, the *pygarg*, is so common near the Fish river, that herds of more than two thousand may sometimes be seen together. The blue antelope** is rare, the *gazelle*, properly so called,†† is one of the most common: the pasan is found in the north-east part of the colony; the gnoo, the antelope of the wood, the condoma‡‡ and others. In the forests of the interior are found many species of baboons. Among the animals of this country may be observed the *orycterops* or the *Myrmecophaga capensis* of Gmelin, named by the Dutch earth-pig; this animal feeds entirely on ants, is larger than the ant-eaters of America, from which it differs sufficiently to constitute a different genus. Zebras, and quaggas larger and stronger than Zebras, move in separate troops; they are two distinct species, that never mix promiscuously. They are be-

* Charpentier Cossign. p. 64. Cl. Abel, p. 223. Colebroke's State of Cape, 352, 353.

† Canis mesomelas.

‡ Felis capensis.

§ Hirax Capensis.

‖ Hystrix cristata.

¶ Dipus cafer.

** Antelope, leucophœa. *Pallas.*

†† A. Dorcas. It is the harte-beest of the Dutch.

‡‡ A. strepsiceros

come very rare in the colony. The elephants have also forsaken the countries inhabited by Europeans, except the canton of Sitzikamma: the two-horned rhinoceros shows itself still less, and the gentle giraffe seeks the more secluded deserts.

Oxen of the Cape.

The wild buffaloes are hunted by the Hottentots and the Caffres, whose herds are in a great measure composed of tame buffaloes and Barbary sheep and goats; the cattle are small and bad. Sparrmann first recognised a particular species in the ox or buffalo of the Cape, which he called *bos cafer*; it is distinguished by enormous horns, small head, a natural ferocity, and other characters; it is probably widely dispersed in the interior of Africa. In Abyssinia a breed of oxen with very large horns is known.* The savage nature of the Caffre ox recals to mind the *carnivorous bulls*, which all the ancients, since the time of Agatharcides, have placed in Ethiopia; and their horns, often singularly twisted, reminds us of the oxen of the Garamantes, described by Herodotus and Alexander of Myndus, as compelled to walk backwards while feeding, on account of their horns turned towards the earth. The wild boar of this country is like that of the whole interior of the south of Africa, the *Sus Æthiopicus*.

Birds.

The ostrich is found in the deserts of the interior, and sometimes comes in troops to lay waste the fields of corn. M. Barrow states his having killed a very large condor. The flamingos display their scarlet plumage in many directions. We must further enumerate the loxiæ, which construct their nests with wonderful art, and the *Cuculus indicator*, which points out to man the concealed asylum of the laborious bee. We shall not detain our readers with M. Le Vaillant's account of birds, because it is considered as the mere effect of imagination. The poultry, hogs, and other European animals which abound in this colony, have been imported by the Dutch. The horses also, which are at present very common, have likewise been transported by

* Ludolf, Comm. lib. I. c. 10, *et lib.* III. c. 11

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them from Persia. This country partakes, with the rest of Africa, the inconvenience of being exposed to the invasion of locusts. The south-wind drives away these destructive visitants.

The Hottentots.

The Hottentots, the original inhabitants of this country, appear to be a race distinct both from the negro and caffre. A deep brown, or yellow-brown colour, covers their whole body, but does not tinge their eyes, which are of a pure white; their head is small; the face very wide above, ends in a point; their cheek-bones are very prominent; their eyes sunk; the nose flat; the lips thick; teeth very white; the hand and foot small in proportion to the rest of the body; they are straight, well-made, and tall; their hair black, and either curled or woolly; they have scarcely any beard. In many tribes, the hair does not cover the whole surface of the scalp, but rises in small tufts, at certain distances, from each other, resembling the pencils or teeth of a hard shoe-brush, only it is curled and twisted into little round lumps. Suffered to grow, it hangs in small tassels, like fringe. The women actually have the deformity known by the name of the *apron*, already described by an eminent traveller, whose authority is very unjustly doubted.* In some of their external characters they resemble the Mongolian race more than any other known African nation. The Hottentot language, unfortunately little studied, has furnished us with some affinities very remarkable to the small number of Mongolian and Kalmuck words which we have seen.†

* Kolben, p. 51. edit. of 1745. Comp. the Memoir of M. Peron.

† Heaven.....*Inga*, in Hottentot. *Tingri*, in Mongol.
Man.....{*t'Kui* / *t'Kohn*}.....*Kumun*, in Kalmuck.
Man, (male).....*Kouh*.....*Kouhn*, idem.
Child.....*t'Kob*.....*Kœbœn*, son, youth.
Force, (empire)....*Kouquectoa*.....*Kouichin*, idem.
Father.....*Aboob*.....*Abagai*, (according to Witsen.)
Sun.....*Sorri*.....*Souri*, in the Akouscha language.
Head.....*Biqua*.....*Bek*, in three Caucasian idioms.

This unexpected and surprising observation, might lead to very singular conjectures. Mr. Barrow, as well as M. de Grandpré, having observed in the Hottentot the Chinese or Mongolian eyes, immediately conceived they might be a colony of Chinese. It is necessary, however, before forming any conjecture, that the tribes of the central plateau of Southern Africa should be well known, as among them may be found a race similar to that which we are now engaged in describing.

Mongolian words among the Hottentots.

The Hottentots are divided into several tribes. The *Dammaras* occupy the most northern part. This country begins beyond the *Copper mountains*, and reaches to the 21st degree of latitude, or as far as the country of the Makosses.* The *Great Namaquas*, reunited under the patriarchal authority of the missionary Anderson, have ascended the banks of the Orange river, in a north-eastern direction. The *Little Namaquas* are found to the south of the same river, on the banks of which, shaded by mimosas, elephants, lions, and giraffes, are found in considerable numbers.† The *Kabobiquas* and *Geissiquas*, appear to be branches of the Namaquas. The *Koranas*, or *Kora-Hottentots*,‡ occupy a central country, of great extent, and rich in pasturage; less filthy than the other tribes, they shew in their buildings and dress some tendency to civilization. A vast desert or *karrou*, protects their independence from Europeans.§ The Koranas have a great predilection to follow the course of the Orange river, and their chief towns are to be found, says Mr. Campbell, along its banks. Towards the S.E. on the eastern limits of the colony, lived the now extinct *Gonaquas*, or *Channaguas*, a tribe distinguished by very handsome features, and a more enlarged understanding. Many other tribes, named with precision

Tribes of the Hottentots.

The Koranas.

* Lichtenstein, in the Archives ethnographiques de Vater et Bertuch, t. I. p. 286. (Spite of every attention, the position of this tribe is laid down too narrow in our chart of Southern Africa.)

† Patterson, 62.

‡ Probably the Koraques of Vaillant.

§ Barrow, Voyage à la Cochinchine, t. I. p. 271 et suiv. trad. Francaise.

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by ancient observers,* have disappeared in proportion as the colony has invaded their cantons. The descendants of these extinct tribes live among the Dutch in a sort of slavery, more or less mild, according to the caprice of their masters.

Manners and customs of the Hottentots.

Covered by the skin of the sheep, the antelope, or lion, and besmeared with grease of a black or red colour, and armed with a short club, the savage Hottentot, singing and dancing, wanders about in the middle of the herds which form his riches. Their primitive manners are somewhat changed, from their proximity to Europeans. Thus we may believe, with Kolben, that formerly all the Hottentots deprived their children of a testicle,† although, at present, this custom appears to exist only among the Koranas and Bushmen.‡ If Kolben has exaggerated in accusing them of eating those disgusting insects with which their hair is filled, it nevertheless appears that they are fond of eating a similar insect, which is found among the hairs of horses and oxen.§ The most whimsical custom mentioned by the first historian of the Hottentots, is the ceremony by which a magician or juggler sanctifies the union of new married persons, by sprinkling them with a warm and impure water;‖ its truth is avowed by modern observers of the greatest credit;¶ it is by the same operation that a youth of eighteen years of age is initiated into the society of his elders. The temperament of the Hottentots estranges them from polygamy; they have a horror of incest and adultery. The widow who wishes to marry again, is obliged to lose a joint of one of her fingers.** They are said not to have any idea of a divinity; they nevertheless, deliver themselves up to the operations of sorcery, and look upon a species of mantis†† as a sacred animal, or even as a god.

* Kolben, 60. † Idem, 147.

‡ Trutter, chez. Barrow, voyage à la Cochinchine, I. 271. 287.; trad. franc.

§ Mentzel, Description of the Cape, (in Germ.) II. 497. ‖ Kolben. p. 123.

¶ Thunberg, II. 171.; Sparrmann, 319, and the note of Forster.

** Mentzel, Description of the Cape, II. p. 506. †† Mantis fausta.

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The Bosch-men.

The *Boschmen*, or Bushmen, who by the Koranas are called by the indigenous name of *Saabs*, appear to be a branch very anciently separated from the Hottentots.

The Saabs are incontestibly found in the last extreme of degradation to which human nature can be brought; a wild, unsteady, sinister aspect; confused, bland, and insidious manners, a visible embarrassment in their manner of acting when in the presence of other men, announce, at first sight, the depravity of their mind. Their excessive leanness renders the proper characters of the Hottentot race very conspicuous in their whole figure. The natural yellow colour of their skin is observable only under their eyes, where the tears, excited by the smoke of the fire, round which they like to squat, sometimes wipes off the coating of soot and ashes which cover the whole body. Nevertheless, compared with the women, the men may in some measure be considered handsome: flabby breasts, hanging and elongated, a back hollow, almost excavated, and lean like the rest of the body, contrasted with the hips, which are swelled, and so prominent that, like the African sheep, all the fat of the body appears there concentrated, concur, with the ugliness of their face, and their general form, to render these women absolute objects of horror to Europeans.* The amputation of the first joint of the little finger is considered either as a remedy or a useful charm† against diseases and misfortunes. The sting of the scorpion, very dangerous in this country to every other person, has no effect on these savages. Arrayed generally with a bow, a quiver full of arrows, a hat and a belt, leather sandals, a sheep's fleece, a gourd, or the shell of an ostrich's egg to carry water, with two or three grass mats, which, when extended upon sticks, form their tents, and sometimes followed by spaniels, these unfortunate beings lead a most deplorable life, rambling alone, or in small parties, in the burning deserts that bound the colony on the north. They

* Lichtenstein, I. p. 182 et suiv. p. 401. etc.

† Campbell's Second Journey, vol. I. p. 48.

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there chiefly live on roots, berries, ant-eggs, larvas, grass-hoppers, mice, toads, lizards, and the refuse of the chase left by the colonists. Their arrows are always poisoned. The strongest poison used by them is taken from the bags which contain it under the lower jaw of the yellow serpent. The substance thus obtained soon hardens; it is pounded with the red stone used to paint their bodies, and when the juice of the Illiteris bulb has been added, with the compound they prepare their arrows.* It is not necessarily, though often, fatal.†

Extreme barbarity of this tribe.

Sometimes beggars, at other times thieves and brigands, always cowardly and cruel, without a fixed habitation, without control, without society, without any sort of common interest, and living only from day to day, every attempt to soften their savage habits has hitherto failed;‡ the hatred of the neighbouring tribes also was very much excited against them long before the arrival of Europeans. These last, far from hunting them down, as some have supposed, encourage the contrary, though such of the Saabs as roam in the neighbourhood of the colony make them presents of beasts, poultry, tobacco, brandy, coral, and buttons, to incline them to habits of peace. Very recently, the inhabitants of the northern districts united in distributing to one particular troop of Saabs thirty oxen and 1600 ewes, that they might have something for their subsistence; in a short time not a vestige of these remained, from the concourse of distant hordes that joined the party, and did not separate until the whole was consumed. It is the most civilized tribes of the Hottentots, and particularly the Caffres, who wage a deadly war against them,—even the sight of a Saab puts them in a rage.§ A Caffre, deputed by a small horde of his nation, being, in 1804, at the Cape, perceived in the government-house, among the other domestics, a Saab, eleven years of age; suddenly he darted upon him

* Campbell, 2d Journ. I. 30. † Barrow, I. 248—353.

‡ Barrow, Voyage à la Cochinchine, t. I. p. 284.

§ Lichtenstein, p. 437.

with an intention to transfix him with his hassagay. The Saabs are the only people of Southern Africa who make use of poisoned arrows; it is with this weapon that they lay in wait for passengers in the *karroos*, by hiding themselves behind the ferruginous rocks, from which they are with difficulty distinguished. Often, after having received the sort of tribute which the colonists are forced to pay them, they come during the night to their habitations, plunder them of their cattle, and save themselves by flying with the greatest rapidity to their inaccessible mountains. If overtaken in their flight, they do not abandon their booty without either killing or maiming the plundered cattle; they sometimes even massacre every thing they find in the fold—horses, oxen, sheep, dogs, and shepherd, without deriving the least advantage from it.* Like the hyæna, the sight of blood, and the smell of dead bodies, is said to afford them pleasurable sensations. Still the poor Bushman is capable of being reclaimed from the degraded condition we have attempted to delineate, after the testimony of travellers. Far in the interior, they are found to inhabit small villages, and to have made some progress in the arts of life. M. Smit, a boor at whose house Campbell halted, had fifty of them, of all conditions, employed on his farm. "They appeared to be all in good spirits, free from care, and depending entirely on Mynheer for their support. M. Smit had always found, if he committed any thing to their care, that they were faithful to their trust; but whatever was locked up, and not committed to their charge they would steal if they could." Hence, though M. Smit did not require so many assistants, he judged it better to retain them in his service, than to be surrounded with such a number of thieves, and to be obliged to shoot them as others had done.† When taken young, and well treated, they become excellent servants, and shew great activity, talents, and fidelity.‡

* Lichtenstein, 599.

† Campbell, 2d Journey, I. 28—30.

‡ Barrow, I. 190.

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Language of the Hottentots.

Savage tribes are continually changing their idioms; every new chief wishes to introduce some new forms of speech; hence arises an instability and multiplication of dialects, which perplexes critical study. This is a general phenomenon both in Asia and America; it is particularly the case in the instance of the different Hottentot idioms; they are continually varying. The words introduced by the ancient travellers no longer strike the ear of the modern observer; and each tribe, perhaps even each family, introduces terms which end in forming a jargon unintelligible to their neighbours.

According to M. Lichtenstein, the language of the Hottentots is in general remarkable for numerous rapid harsh shrill sounds, emitted from the bottom of the chest with strong aspirations, and modified in the mouth by a singular motion of the tongue. The dipthongs *eou*, *aao*, and *ouou* predominate, and the phrase frequently ends with the final *ing*, pronounced in a musical tone of voice. In this motion of the tongue there appear to be three progressive sound, produced by the manner in which the back of the tongue is withdrawn from the upper part of the palate, or the point of the tongue either from the incisor teeth or the upper grinders. The peculiar construction of the organs in this race facilitates much the formation of these sounds, which in others would be very difficult. The bony part of their palate is in general narrower, shorter, and proportionally less naked in the back part than that of Europeans and Asiatics.

Peculiar motion of the tongue.

The language of all the Hottentot tribes, including that of the Bushmen, is the same; it is a fact at present established, by the singularities which they have in common, and by the resemblance of many of the words. It must, however, be confessed, that the idiom of the Bushmen offers more striking differences than is observed between the different dialects of the Hottentots, and even sufficiently strong to prevent the two races of people from communicating with each other except by signs. Besides that the clacking sound of the Bushman idiom is stronger and

more frequent, the harsh sounds clearer, and the ends of the sentences a great deal more drawling.

Colony of the Cape.

The *Colony of the Cape*, spread over an extent of 120,000 square miles, nearly equal to that of Great Britain, contained, by the census in 1821, a population of 114,903; but as it does not comprise sojourners, nor troops in garrison, crews of ships, nor unsettled inhabitants, or Hottentots, which are estimated at 5000 more, the whole population may be safely affirmed to exceed 120,000 in 1822.* Since 1798, the progress of the census has been as follows:—

| 1798. | 1806. | 1810. | 1814. | 1819. | 1821. | 1821. *Corrected.* | 1822. *Corrected.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 61,947 | 75,145 | 81,122 | 84,069 | 99,026 | 113,903 | 116,044 | 120,000 |

Or, the population of the Cape has been increased by one half in sixteen, and doubled in twenty-four years. Of these 47,978 are free; namely 24,977 males, and 23,001 females; 14,291 male, and 14,544 female Hottentots; 918 male, and 451 female prize slaves, formerly released from illegal slave traders, and now indentured as apprentices for fourteen years; lastly, 19,164 male, and 13,024 female slaves. According to estimates on the spot, the Hottentots double their number in twenty-five years, the slaves in thirty-three years; and it is observed that, owing to emigration, the population of the eastern division of the colony increases much faster than the west, though even this nearly doubles its population in twenty-four years. There is now, therefore, an individual to every square mile, or forty persons to every farm, the total amount of those in the colony being about 3000, though very unequal in point of extent. The white people are descendants of English, Germans, French, but chiefly of Dutch. The district *Tulbagh* lies farthest towards the north, and is best known. The second, which includes the whole eastern part of the colony, derives its name from the petty village of *Stel-*

Colonists.

* Colebrooke, 357.

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*lenbosch.* The most southern part, washed by the sea, is called *Hottentot Holland;* it is a country as fine as it is fertile in corn and wine. The most remote eastern district is called *Graaf Reinet.* It is here that the inhabitants, all either shepherds or hunters, live in a state quite patriarchal; the men are gigantic; the women have a peculiarly fresh complexion and majestic figure. The bay of *Algoa* has a small fortification. The district *Zwellendam* ranges along the southern side, and includes the cantons of *Sitzikamma* and *Houtiniqua,* with the bays of *Plettenberg* and *Mossel.*

Manners of the colonists.

Throughout the whole colony nothing but enclosed farms are to be seen. The farmers, called in Dutch, *boors,* or peasants, carry the superfluous produce of their harvests to Cape Town, on heavy carriages, drawn by a great number of oxen. Their hospitality to travellers, the necessary result of want of inns, is sometimes interested, and yielded often with a bad grace. Since the period of the residence of the English, their manners have become more polished. The colonists have been too much calumniated by certain travellers, who accuse them of inhumanity towards their slaves: in fact, the account we have just given of that part of the population doubling itself in thirty years, is a sufficient answer to this antiquated reproach. Though the Cape Dutch are proverbially fond of gain, the number of emancipated slaves is always considerable; in the course of the year 1820 it amounted to six male, and twenty-six female slaves; probably more than in all the slave colonies of the world besides. It must be owned, however, that before the suppression of the slave trade, the waste of life in this unfortunate class was much greater than now. It was rated by Barrow at 8 per cent. it is now less than 2 in males, in females scarcely 1½; while births are 4 per cent.

People of colour.

The people of colour are estimated at a tenth part of the free population. The remaining black population are Malays, negro slaves, indented negroes, Hottentot and Bushmen servants, Malays, and free Hottentots. The negroes were brought from Madagascar and Mozambique, and are

chiefly labourers; the Malays are artizans, their females house servants; and are as remarkable at the Cape as in the east for a sinister and dangerous activity of character. The number of them who have by their economy purchased their freedom is very considerable. The last and most valuable class of slaves is the *Africander*—the African born slave, the produce of an European or Cape Dutchman, and of a slave girl. They are not much darker than Europeans, and are the confidential servants of their masters, highly esteemed.

Cape Town.

Cape Town, the capital of the colony, reaches from the level of the sea to the foot of the Table and Lion mountains, along the banks of Table Bay; this bay is deep, but the sea is often rough, and the anchorage unsafe. Vessels enter it only from the month of September to the middle of April; during the rest of the year they put into False Bay, where they are sheltered from the north-west winds. This, which is also called *Simon's* Bay, becomes in its turn unsafe during the opposite season, when the winds blow from the south-east; so that the Cape, situated between two bays and two seas, has not a real port. All the streets are built at right angles; and, in only one of them, a canal brings Holland to our recollection. The houses, built either with stone or brick, are adorned with statues; the roofs are generally in terraces.* The public buildings have little beauty: the Calvinistic church, in its interior, has many armorial bearings, epitaphs, and escutcheons, in relief and in painting, of former dignitaries of the Dutch church and state, but the last member of Dutch titled nobility is lately dead.† The Lutheran chapel is also admired for its elegance; and, during the government of Lord Somerset, the English built an elegant commercial hall, of ample dimensions. Other public buildings are the castle, the great barracks, the granary, the custom-house, the club-room or society house, and the colonial office building. The latter contains

* Epid. Collin, Manuscript Notice of the Cape.

† Colebrooke, p. 152.

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the library lately erected by the government, or rather engrafted upon the Dessinian library, heretofore under the management of the ministry of the Calvinist church. The founder was a German emigrant, a man of some learning and great benevolence: when alive, he was secretary to the Orphan institution, and by the manumission of all his slaves, embalmed his memory at his death. The library is now a noble collection, contained in two spacious halls, besides other apartments and apparatus for chemical experiments. The only thing wanting is readers; reading is not an African passion; and a few years ago, some Frenchmen, who, with M. Collin, wished to see it, were obliged to give several days notice to the keeper of this neglected depot.

Origin of the city.

Cape Town, founded in 1652 by Van-Riebeck, was peopled by bad characters exiled from Holland, by soldiers who had obtained their discharges, and by sailors who, having saved some property at Batavia, were enabled to disengage themselves from service. At the time of the revocation of the edict of Nantz, many unfortunate Frenchmen, whom a barbarous mother rejected from her bosom, were hospitably received in Holland. Many of these Frenchmen established themselves at the Cape; they even peopled a small canton called the *Coin Français*, which is still inhabited by their descendants; they have only preserved French names much disfigured. The language is almost forgotten, and their customs are those of the Dutch. Cape Town possessed in 1821, a population of 9761 free inhabitants, 9661 Hottentots, apprentices, and slaves, in all 19,422; in 1798, the census only amounted to 5500, in other words, the population of the town increased nearly twice as fast as that of the colony. The number of houses is 1478, so there are more than thirteen to a family.

Education.

Education is much neglected by the Dutch at the Cape; the young speak French and English tolerably well. There is indeed one colonial establishment for classical and school education; but the master is the colonial chaplain, with a salary of 1600 rix dollars per

annum besides his cure. In other respects little informed, they all excel in the arts of exercise; although good horsemen, and dexterous hunters, three parts of their life are passed in smoking; they even sleep with the pipe in their mouths, are continually drinking tea, coffee, and gin. BOOK LXX.

"The women, until the age of twenty or twenty-five, continue very handsome: their blue eyes, hair of a clear chesnut colour, a rosy complexion, and extreme neatness, lead one to overlook their manners, which are far from elegant; after this age they generally lose the lightness of their figure, become very fat, and more worthy of their husbands, whose phlegm, mean appearance, and awkward gait, little corresponded before with their delicacy. Women are found at the Cape of great simplicity of exterior, who are at the same time very amiable and well informed." These are the words of M. Collin, a Frenchman. The English author of the "State of the Cape," 1822,* says, "Very frequent marriages take place between English gentlemen and Cape ladies; but the pleasing and engaging manners of the Cape Dutch girls, and their vivacity, less forward than that of the French, but enough so to subdue English coldness, is quite at variance with the obtrusive presumption of the younger part of the other sex, and in *them* it is not to be denied, that abundant materials exists, which, when properly worked, form a totally different man. Ignorant of the gradations of society, and with all the chances against him, from the natural good feelings of the mind, the individual generally turns out a respectable character as he advances into life." Mr. Barrow, no friend to the Dutch of the Cape, bears a similar testimony to the engaging sweetness of these ladies. Women.

The established religion of the Cape is Calvinistic; the people devout and attentive to its duties.† The young are catechised weekly, and pay the strictest attention to their teachers. Besides a Calvinistic church in each of the twelve districts, at 2000 rix dollars, or £150 per annum, with house and farm from the colonial government, two Religion.

* Page 171. † Colbrooke, p. 61. 63.

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missionaries for Chinnie* and Caffraria, at £75 per annum, with free farm, there are two English chaplains, receiving £700 and £350 Sterling, a Lutheran clergyman, at £13 a year, from the revenue of the colony. The English, who receive between them nearly as much salary as all the rest, are the only clergy complained of for neglect of duty. A Roman Catholic chapel is now building by subscription. There are sixteen missionaries of the London society, six Wesleyan, and three Moravian missionaries. The latter, by making industry and religion twin sisters, have not only made great progress themselves, but suggested improvements to those of other sects.† The Malays, amounting to 3000, carry on their devotion in rooms, or halls, occasionally in the town quarries, under a learned *imam*, who chants the Koran with great taste. Mahometanism makes amazing progress among the lower orders at the Cape. Slave owners are impressed with an erroneous notion that a slave once baptized becomes free, and are, therefore, adverse to the Christian instruction or baptism of their slaves. Hence the slave is forced to become mussulman, because he cannot become a Christian. The above prejudice, however, is daily wearing away, and there are now a few free schools at the Cape, where slaves are taught to read and write on the plan of Dr. Bell; the total number of scholars being from three to four hundred. The presence of the English at the Cape has produced a great change in its manners. Definitively placed under the English government, it must, by degrees, lose the character of a Dutch colony.

Mahometanism.

This colony is susceptible of great improvement. Situated in the route from Europe to India, vessels that traverse these seas stop here for refreshment, and with a view of imparting fresh vigour to their crews, weakened by a long voyage. Its fertile soil producing every thing that is necessary for the wants of civilized man, may, strictly speaking, completely supply herself. Under an enlighten-

Importance of the Cape.

* The *Chinniquas*, or, *Gonnaquas*, lately extinct.

† Lord Somerset's Instructions, Ibid. p. 223. 350.

ed government, population will increase, commerce will find an easy market for its indigenous products, the culture of which will be improved by their interests being now better understood. It requires only an active superintendence to unite the Cape with the central parts of Africa, by well directed expeditions of discovery, and thus to draw from it unknown riches. During a period of war, the Cape is the centre of a maritime station, which commands the navigation of the East Indies. It is a central emporium to the trade of the eastern and western world; their relations to it, expressed in tonnage, are as 10,326 to 10,673 respectively. The Cape is rapidly growing into consequence, though its emigrants complain. Still there are circumstances which seem to set natural limits to its prosperity; the chief of which are the unequal distribution of water and rain, and the inadequacy of the soil to produce a quantity of wheat sufficient to supply the increase of inhabitants. The latter, however, is no weighty obstacle, since the supply of barley is abundant. Maize also may be well suited to the climate.

Produce. Exports.

Next to agriculture and wines, which are still the staple commodity at the Cape, the whale and seal fishery must be ranked. Immense numbers of the finest fish swarm in the vicinity of the Cape, and considerable quantities are taken by whale boats, affording exports to the amount of 24,760 rix dollars. Aloes, hides, barilla, ivory, ostrich feathers, fruits dried in the sun for the Indian market, and horses, are the other products for exportation. The breed of the latter has become extremely valuable since the arrival of the English, and the consequent encouragement given to horse racing. About 200 horses, value 56,980 rix-dollars, were in 1821 exported to India. The whole amount of exportations exceeds two millions of rix-dollars.

Internal commerce.

The internal commerce of the Cape is chiefly maintained by hawkers, by a few shops in the small towns, and most of all by the visits of the boors to Cape Town, often after a journey of 500 miles, over deserts which detain them several weeks, and by the fairs which are established at dif-

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ferent points of the colony. In the months from September to February, when wine and corn is brought in, a line of waggons, each drawn by six, ten or twelve oxen, will make its appearance from the country at day-break, extending some miles. After an abundant harvest, 180 have been counted in one morning—the average of the month of January, 1822, was sixty daily. The boor travels in a horse waggon, in which he overtakes one or two ox waggons, sent forward on the road. His wife and children accompany him, and after laying in a stock of necessaries sufficient for himself, family, and slaves, until next yearly or half yearly visit, he returns in a few days to the interior. The eastern parts of the colony are supplied by coasting vessels. The tonnage employed in this trade, in 1821, amounted to 1962 tons, in the coasting trade in general to 4507 tons, and the whole amount of tonnage in Table Bay, exclusive of men of war, 56,447 tons. For the defence of this great resort of shipping, from the S.E. monsoons, it is in contemplation to carry a mole on the S.E. of the bay to the extent of 2000 yards. Under commercial advantages of the Cape, ought to be enumerated the annual disbursements of the Indian invalids at the Cape, which are ascertained to amount to 700,000 rix-dollars per annum.

Government.

The executive authority is vested in the governor of the colony, and from him, or from British acts of Parliament, or orders in council, emanate all the charges which take place in the state. There is no legislative assembly here, as in the West Indies. The law, however, is well administered, with open doors, and is founded on the "statutes of India," proclaimed here by the Dutch of 1715; where deficient, the civil and Dutch law are successively resorted to. The court consists of one Chief Justice, and eight ordinary Justices, and these decide causes by a majority, the Chief Justice having a casting voice. There are no juries here. An appeal can be made from these nine judges to the Court of Appeal, consisting of the governor and an assessor, who is a barrister in criminal cases, but in civil cases, the secretary of the

court. Unfortunately the judges are not for life, but removeable at pleasure. It is evident, that great courage in the lawyers, and integrity in the governor, can alone preserve so improper a collusion of interests in a state of purity. Though the people are abundantly litigious, crime is not frequent, the heterogeneous elements of cape population being considered. In 1821, the number committed was ninety-one, of whom eight were females; and of these, six were sentenced to transportation for theft, and eight condemned to death. The total number of capital condemnations for 1820 and 1821, all of which were for murder, amounted to seventeen; namely, nine Hottentots, one Bushman, one prize negro, one European, and five slaves. Three of these were remitted; the European suffered. On the fourth of March, 1822, there was only one person confined for debt; eleven appears to be the maximum. Justice is administered to the seven country districts by the *Landdrost*, who is a kind of sheriff of the district, assisted by six *Heemraden*, as assessors. The heemraden are selected from the wealthiest and most respectable of the burghers, and seem to be the only popular part of the political machine. In every other respect the government of the colony is absolute, even to the censorship of the press and public journals. It is peculiar to the law of the Cape, to allow of matrimonial separation on the sole ground of mutual dislike; and to take on itself in a most beneficial manner the protection of orphans. An *Orphan Chamber* is established, which takes charge of the estates of all those who die intestate, or leave children minors; the chamber realises the estate; puts out the amount to interest on land, at the colonial rate of six per cent., payable every six months, making an allowance to heirs suitable to their condition and education till they come of age. Every method is taken for the discovery of heirs. This excellent institution is the result of a beautiful trait in the character of the Cape Dutch. "No surer proof of their kind disposition can be offered, than the frequent adoption of children of persons not related to

Crimes.

Orphan chamber.

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them, whose parents may be dead or may have met with misfortune. They find protectors and friends, and by custom a godfather or godmother think it their bounden duty to provide for the children of their dead or unfortunate friends."* A married couple saying in a shop they knew not what to do with their new-born infant, the master submissively asked to be allowed to take the child; and sending attendants with a sedan chair to receive it, was mortally offended when it returned empty, from the parents refusing to confirm the gift. There can therefore be no difficulty, except the present enormous exchange (of 195,) in the goods of those dying intestate at the Cape being transmitted to their European heirs.

Bank money.

The above singular depreciation of the paper money of the Cape, has arisen chiefly from an over issue of that article, without any guarantee for its value. The rix-dollar should be worth nearly four shillings, at present it scarcely equals one shilling and sixpence. Gold and silver have consequently long disappeared; and the only metallic currency of the Cape consists of English penny pieces. The distress and annoyance proceeding from this circumstance is incalculable, and can only be remedied, it is stated, by an issue of money representing actual value. At present three millions of paper dollars circulate without this guarantee, although the whole produce does not exceed nine millions; while it is known that one-tenth† of the amount of the annual produce is generally sufficient for the medium of its circulation in any country. The evil cannot but be aggravated in a country whose imports are three times as large as the exports, the former being two millions, the latter six millions of rix-dollars, in 1821.

This cause, so common in all new countries, and so little attended to by their governments; the occurrence of three successive seasons of drought; the arrival of shoals of emigrants, apparently removed from Britain without any proper measures being previously taken for their establishment,

* State of the Cape, p. 168.

† Wealth of Nations II. 32.

or without a single functionary in the colony having been consulted,* have thrown a gloom for the present over the otherwise flourishing colony of Southern Africa. Yet, as vicissitude is the great law of nature in her operations, an early recurrence of droughts, these terrible precursors of famine, cannot reasonably be dreaded; and when we compare the other two evils with the mighty powers of compensation possessed by the mother country, the Cape may soon be expected to raise its head, the finest, and not the least flourishing or important settlement of the British empire.

* State of the Cape, p. 179.

# BOOK LXXI.

## AFRICA.

*Continuation of the Description of Africa.—South-East Coast, or Caffraria and Mozambique.*

BOOK LXXI.

General idea of the Caffre nations.

THE most recent observations have shewn that the people scattered along the south-eastern side of Africa, from the Bay of Algoa as far as Quiloa, and perhaps farther, resemble each other in physical characters, that distinguish them from the negro race. The head of these people, like that of Europeans, presents a raised arch; the nose, far from being flat, approaches the hooked form; they have, however, the negro's thick lips, and the large buttocks of the Hottentot; their frizzled hair is less woolly than that of the negro; their beard stronger than the Hottentot's; a brown or iron-grey complexion appears to separate them again from the negro.* The idioms of these people, although little known, have points of resemblance. The slaves of Mozambique understand many words of the Betjouana language. The inhabitants of the environs of Quiloa designate the divinity by the same name as the Betjouanas. In all these dialects, words may be discovered borrowed from the Arabian. The custom of circumcision is equally prevalent among all these nations, who appear to have received their civilization from Abyssinia and Arabia.

Of the name Caffre or Caffraria.

By what name is this race to be designated? Chance has rendered common to a considerable number of these

* Lichtenstein, Voyages, t. I. p. 406. Thunberg, I. 188. Barrow, etc.

people an arbitrary name. The Portuguese navigators, after doubling the Cape of Good Hope, found the inhabitants of the eastern coast of Africa more advanced in civilization as they approached the north, where the Arabs had introduced their own manners and religious belief. These Mahometans designated, under the vague name of *Caffres* or *heretics*, all the natives of those countries into which the Mussulman religion had not been introduced. Under the name of *Cafarah*, or *Caffraria*, the Arabian geographers comprehended the whole interior of Africa. Caffraria might thus reach to Nigritia,* line the Indian ocean from Zeila as far as Brava,† and again extend to the borders of the sea to the south of Sofala.‡ In proportion as the specific names of kingdoms and people became known to Europeans, the extent of Caffraria diminished on the maps, and had nearly become extinct. Nevertheless, when the Dutch at the Cape, while extending by degrees the limits of their colony towards the east, found it necessary to make their neighbours better known, otherwise almost forgotten, they adopted the Arabic name, transmitted by the Portuguese writers, with a view of applying it particularly to the tribe with whom they were in immediate contact, the true name of which is *Koussa*.

We conceive that the term *Caffre* may be provisionally employed for designating the predominant, and probably the indigenous race of eastern Africa, while, at the same time, it would be inconvenient to apply it to any particular colony.

Mountains and rivers.

The Caffre nations inhabit a region less known than any on the globe. We there see, behind a marshy, unhealthy, but fertile coast, chains of mountains arise that have been very imperfectly examined, which appear to be in a parallel direction with the coast, that is from south-west to north-east. Do these interrupted chains, traversed by several rivers, proceed from a *plateau*, or from a central

* Edrisi, Africa, edit. Hartmann, 141. † Idem, 98, 99.

‡ Barrow, Decadas, passim. Thomann, Voyage et Biographie, 55—57.

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chain? Do the rivers *Zambese*, *Coava*, and *Quilimanci*, derive their sources from amongst rocks, precipices, perhaps even from the midst of snows and ice, or are they formed in vast sandy plains, like those from the plateau of central Asia, or from verdant savannas, similar to those of America? There is nothing to assist us in resolving these questions. The burning winds that proceed from the interior seem to argue against the existence of this central chain, which, under the apocryphal name of *Lupata, or Spine of the world*, is traced at random on our charts.

Of the mountains Lupata.

The Portuguese historians speak of them only as of a thick forest, interspersed with great rocks.* The great lakes, of the existence of which little is distinctly known, may, with as much probability, have formed their basins in the plains of sand as among rocks and glaciers. Portuguese merchants, in traversing Mocaranga, to the west of the state of Monomotapa, only observed small hills covered with copses of thorny shrubs.† The interior of Ajan, to judge by its productions and animals, ought to be a dry plateau. In short, the mountains of Abyssinia do not present any fixed direction, and consequently do not indicate a great chain well marked.

In this absence of every positive information, let us abstain from those vain and presumptuous general opinions, by which certain geographers attempt to give proof of their genius; let us only simply describe the different countries in rotation.

The Natal Coast.

The *Natal* coast, extending from the great Fish River, near the colony of the Cape, as far as the bay of Lourenço-Marquez or Lagoa, is watered by many rivers, covered with wood, and intersected by fields or magnificent savannas;‡ there is no port safe, and sufficiently deep, to afford shelter to large ships. None of

* Jean dos Santos, la Haute-Ethiopie, Liv. II. ch. 2. (It is *Lupara* in the French translation. We have no access to the original.)

† Notes of M. Corréa de Serra, et de M. Constancio.

‡ Dampier's voyage round the world, vol. II. 141—136.

these rivers have a long course. In the interior are chains of mountains that appear to be of a calcarious nature, as the natives hollow caverns in them, in which they live with their herds. The *holcus*, maize, and cattle, constitute the wealth of the inhabitants. They obtain a species of silk from a plant like the asclepias of Syria. Jacob Franck the traveller, about the environs of the bay of Lagoa, saw lemon, cotton-trees, sugar-canes, a seed called *pombe*, which is used to make an inebriating drink.* The animals, probably more numerous than the men, roam in large troops; the most remarkable are elephants, antelopes, the rhinoceros, and hippopotamus.

Of the existence of the Unicorn.

It has recently been asserted that the unicorn, or *monoceros* of the ancients, has been found here; which, if proved, would make this region very interesting. A respectable author, of the sixteenth century, has stated that the first Portuguese navigator saw, between the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Corrientes, an animal having the head and mane of a horse, with one moveable horn.† It is precisely in this same region that two good modern observers have seen several representations of a one-horned animal; all the rocks of Camdebo and Bambo are covered with them;‡ the Dutch colonists affirm that they have seen these animals alive, and had killed some of them; they resembled the quagga, or wild horse; the horn adhered only to the skin.§ These positive testimonies, unfortunately of illiterate witnesses, are nevertheless corroborated by the account of Barthema (or Varteman,) who, in the fifteenth century, saw at Mecca, two unicorns like antelopes; they had been brought from Ethiopia.‖ The ancients have undoubtedly given a fabulous and vague account of this

* Ehrmann, Bibliothèque des Voyages, t. III. p. 112, etc. etc.

† Garcias, Hist. Arom, I. cap. 14.

‡ Sparmann, Voyage to the Cape. Barrow, Voyage to Cochinchina. Travels in South Africa, 2d edit. I. 269.

§ Cloete, proprietor of Constantia, near the Cape, in Voigt's Physical Journal, 1796 (in Germ.)

‖ Barthema, lib. I. de Arabia, c. 18.

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*monoceros;* they nevertheless unanimously compare it to a horse in the form of its body, with the head of a stag;* which proves their having seen an animal differing much from the rhinoceros. Besides this unicorn resembling a horse, the ancients distinctly name the *unicorn ass,* of a great size, a horn striped with white, black, and brown, great swiftness, and fond of a solitary life:† they describe it as *soliped,* like the unicorn horse, a circumstance coinciding with the systematic observation of anatomists, drawn from an analogy of animals with divided hoofs, who all have two horns. In other respects, this objection of our infallible philosophers is not always a solid one, as there are antelopes in which the two horns arise from a common base, raised two inches above the head;‡ how then can nature be prevented extending this union from the base to the point? Besides, the accounts of those among the moderns who pretend to have seen the unicorn, remove this difficulty by representing the horn as attached only to the skin, similar to that of the rhinoceros.

The existence then of the unicorn is not impossible, as has been said, but neither is it proved, nor even likely: this genus, like many others, may have become extinct; whether, however, this animal exists or not, its representation upon the rocks of Southern Africa is not less a curious circumstance; it concurs in proving the ancient connexion of Caffraria with Asia; for the figure of the unicorn was, among the Persians and Hebrews, the symbol of kingly power; it is with this meaning delineated on the monuments of Persepolis. At Mashow, a town in the territory of the Tamahas, an animal of the rhinoceros kind was killed in 1821,§ *having a horn projecting three feet from the forehead,* arising about ten inches above the tip of the nose. A few inches of a small second horn, behind,

* Onesicrit. ap. Strab. t. XV. p. 489, edit. Casaub. Plin. VIII. cap. 21. etc.

† Ctesias, p. 16, ap. Herod, edit. Steph. Arist. Hist. Anim. II. cap. 1, part III. cap. 2. Plin. XI. 37—46. ‡ Barrow, l. c.

§ See delineation in Campbell's Second Journey, I. p. 295. chap. XXXIX.

did not affect its unicorn appearance. The head measured three feet from the mouth to the ear. It is at present deposited in the British Museum. The origin, figure, position, and magnitude of the horn correspond exactly with the above-mentioned representation of the unicorn in the Bushman caves of Bambo, as delineated by Barrow,* and not the smallest doubt can remain that Mr. Campbell's animal is identical with the Bushman original, as far down as the neck. The country in which it was killed, lies directly north from that assigned to the unicorn by Barrow, namely, behind the Bamba mountains, where the animal found by Campbell is so far from being rare, "that the natives hardly took the smallest notice of the head, but treated it as a thing familiar to them." They make from one horn four handles for their battle axes. Another creature of the same kind was seen, and wounded at the same time. The unicorn then, or a quadruped with one long projecting horn, is found, but it would be endless to attempt to reconcile the jarring accounts of remote antiquity, and modern ignorance, with the present interesting discovery.

Tribe of the Koussas.

The tribe that first presents itself, in tracing the coast from south to north, is that of the *Koussas*. We have been made acquainted with it by two recent travellers, Lichtenstein and Alberti.† The country of the *Koussas* is bounded on the east by the river Key, on the west by the great Fish river, on the south by the sea, and on the north by a great chain of mountains, crossing from west to east, dividing it from the territory of the Bushmen. It is traversed by the rivers Keyskamma and Buffalo: the last alone furnishes good water. It is not now the Great Fish, but the Keyskamma river which is considered to form their western boundary.‡ The territory between the Great

* Campbell's Second Journey, I. 269.

† Alberti's Description of the Caffres, Amsterdam, 1811. Lichtenstein, Voyage dans l'Afrique Australe; Berlin, 1811.

‡ Campbell's Map, State of the Cape, p. 377.

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Fish and the Keyskamma, including a parallelogram of 2000 square miles* of the finest land in Caffraria, fertile, well watered, abounding in luxurious pastures, has lately been ceded by the friendly chief of the Caffres, Gaika, for the purpose of constituting it a *neutral ground* between the British colony and Caffraria. But the real object to which it has been applied, is the accommodation of the emigrants who sailed from England in 1820. It forms a new district under the name of Albany.†

The soil is a black earth, rich, and extremely fertile.‡ The banks of the rivers and the low hills are covered with mimosas, aloes, euphorbias, and other high trees, or with thick bushes, almost impenetrable. Among the vegetables is a species of reed well suited to quench thirst, although growing in brackish water. The downs, at the mouth of the Key, produce wild disang in great abundance. It is not rare to find traces of honey among the clefts of the mountains, in the hollows of trees, and in deserted ant holes. Between the Fish and the Keyskamma rivers, there is excellent pasturage, both for large and small cattle. The grass that grows to the east of Keyskamma contains too much acid, and hardens in ripening; many species of antelope are fed on the western banks, also an incredible number of chamois, numerous herds of roe-bucks, elks, and other species of antelopes, wild horses, wild boars, ostriches, peacocks, speckled hens, geese, and other aquatic birds. These peaceable animals are pursued by lions, panthers, wolves, jackals, and many birds of prey. On the eastern bank, on the contrary, as far as the river Lagoa, a few elks only and horses are to be seen; the elephant and hippopotamus appear to inhabit this spot in preference.

* Barrow, I. passim.

† Governor Donkin's proclamation, May 25, 1821. State of the Cape, p. 216. and 133.

‡ Patterson's Voyage to the Cape, p. 88.

The winter is not generally so rainy as at the Cape; Fahrenheit's thermometer seldom rises higher than 70 degrees, and seldom falls below 50; during the rest of the year, it varies from 70 to 90 degrees; nevertheless, in the height of summer, storms are sometimes preceded by blasts of burning winds, which cause the thermometer to rise suddenly to 100 and more degrees. Temperature.

The Koussas are generally tall, with a handsome head, regular features, an easy light figure, sinewy arms, all the limbs perfectly developed, noble carriage, vigorous attitude, and a firm resolute step. The colour of their skin is a blackish grey, or like iron recently forged, which is only unpleasant at first sight. But, with a view of heightening the effects of nature, they not only paint the face, but the whole body, by rubbing themselves with a red pigment diluted with water, to which the women often add the juice of some odoriferous plant. The better to fix this application, they again apply a layer of grease or marrow, as soon as it is dry, which attaches it more closely to the skin, and renders the latter more pliant. Red, in general, is the favourite colour of the Caffres. Their hair is black, short, woolly, hard to the touch, and united into thick meshes. It is uncommon to see one of these Caffres with a full beard; the chin alone is generally covered with a few tufts of down; it is the same with the other parts of the body. Physical character of the Koussas.

The women are much smaller, and rarely attain the height of a well-made European female; but with this difference, they are as well formed as the men. All the limbs of a young Caffre woman have the rounded and elegant form so much admired in antiques. Their breasts are well formed; contentment and cheerfulness is depicted in their countenances. The two sexes have a smooth and perfectly healthy skin. The same phenomenon discovered among the Hottentots, and which has given rise to so many absurd accounts, exists among the women of Caffraria; only the prolongation of the membrane is much smaller. Owing to their simple and natural mode of life, Their women.

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the Caffres are neither ill-shaped nor deformed. Numerous herds of cows furnish an abundance of milk, which is their principal food. They always eat it in the state of curd, and keep it in rush baskets of admirable workmanship. Their other aliments are meat, generally roasted, millet, maize, and water-melons, which they prepare in various ways.

Their food.

They have no salt, nor do they substitute any other seasoning. Water is their only drink. It is only now and then that they make an intoxicating drink with the meal of millet fermented. They cannot be persuaded to eat the flesh of tame hogs, hares, geese, or ducks, nor any kind of fish. When asked the cause of their dislike, they answer, that hogs are fed with every sort of filth; that after having eaten hare they become mad, that geese and ducks have a disagreeable voice, resembling toads, and, in short, that all fish belong to the race of serpents. They are all passionately fond of tobacco. The *Hambounas*, on the contrary, near Rio de Lagoa, never smoke; but, in return, they take a great deal of snuff.*

The Koussas are very active. It is not uncommon, for example, that a party will continue to pursue an elephant several days together, even at the hazard of their lives; yet they do not eat the flesh, and the teeth, which are the most precious of the spoil, are the property of the chief of the horde, and are therefore presented to him. They

Their taste for travelling.

have a particular taste for long journeys, which they often undertake for the sole purpose of seeing their friends, or even merely for the sake of the journey, and of having something to do. After a journey of thirty or forty leagues, performed in the shortest possible time, they do not shew any appearance of extraordinary lassitude, and a small present is sufficient to induce them to dance after this fatigue.

Their clothing.

Their clothes are made of the skin of sheep, which they prepare with much art; they hang down to the calf of the leg. Ivory rings, worn on the left arm, are their principal

* Alberti, p. 12.

ornaments. All the women have their back, arms, and the middle of the breast, furrowed with parallel lines, at equal distances. These incisions, which, in their opinion, add beauty to their persons, are made by introducing a bodkin, like a bistoury, under the skin, which is torn as they turn up the point. They are very orderly in their families. Plurality of wives is permitted, those only, however, who are in easy circumstances, have two, and seldom more. The women, in general, are very fruitful; yet more children are found among those who do not share their husband's company with another, nor does polygamy favour population so much as is generally supposed. The dwelling of each family consists of a circular cabin very low; its construction is the work of the mother and daughters. The cattle is of first importance to the Caffre; they may be said to constitute the chief object of his thoughts and affections. The Caffres are the true Arcadians of Theocritus. Sometimes the peculiar lowing of a cow is so delightful to the ear of a Caffre, that he cannot rest until he has purchased it, and to have it he pays often a great deal more than the real value. The best trained dog does not more rigidly obey his master, than these horned cattle the voice of their conductor. A sudden whistle will stop a large drove of oxen; another whistle will be sufficient to put them again in motion. Cultivation of the land also provides the Caffres with a part of their subsistence; the women perform the labour. At the age of twelve years, the children of both sexes receive a sort of education from the chief of the horde. They are divided into companies that are educated according to the exigency of the service. The boys are appointed to the care of the cattle; at the same time the public officers exercise them in the use of the javelin and club. The girls are taught, under the inspection of the chief's wives, to make clothes, prepare food, and, in a word, to perform the work of the hut and garden.

Pastoral taste.

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Circumcision is in general use among the Caffres; it is performed when the young man approaches the age of puberty, nor is there any religious idea attached to it.*

Circumcision.

The children are very dutiful to their parents, and during their whole lives treat them with great respect. Women do not generally take any part in the deliberations which have for their object the general interest of the horde; but, in time of fear, when the lives of ambassadors might be in danger, women are deputed to carry the proposals of peace to the enemy, it being perfectly certain that no ill will befal them.

Women perform the office of herald.

An universal sentiment of kindness unites all Caffres, and every individual considers an injury done to another as if it were his own; they interfere in the affair with the greatest earnestness. Although very self-interested, they exhibit the most perfect good faith in their commercial dealings. Hospitality is in their eyes a sacred duty, which they discharge with the most earnest alacrity; every stranger is received and welcomed; they even go so far as to provide him with a companion for the night.

Arms of the Koussas.

Far from being a warlike nation, the Koussas have a decided preference for peaceful habits and a pastoral life; they do not, however, hesitate to have recourse to arms, whenever they are called upon to defend their rights, either real or imaginary. Their arms consist of the hassagay, the shield, and the club, which they handle with great dexterity; they are always very bad marksmen. A late traveller† cites an example. After having distributed brandy to a body of Caffres, a board was erected at the distance of sixty paces, and a red cotton handkerchief offered as a reward to any one who could hit it. They laboured a very long time before any of them got the prize. But the iron point of the hassagay pierced the board in different parts, although an inch in thickness. This shews how dangerous a weapon it is in the hands of

* Alberti, p. 71.

† Lichtenstein, I. p. 354, et suiv.

a resolute man. The Caffre holds in his left hand a bundle of hassagays, which he darts one after the other from his right, at the same time running upon his adversary; he grasps the last in his hand, in order to strike in close combat. "Having finished this first exercise," continues M. Lichtenstein," they gave us, of their own accord, a representation of their manner of fighting. They placed themselves in line, and imitated with violent and animated efforts, the action of throwing the javelin, and, at the same time, avoiding the enemies aims. For this purpose, they continually change their position, jumping from right to left with loud cries, throwing themselves for an instant on the ground, and rising suddenly with great vigour to take a new aim. The agility and swiftness of their movements, the variety and rapid succession of the finest attitudes, the graceful, noble figure of the naked combatants, rendered the sight both new and interesting." Previous to the commencement of hostilities, the aggressor sends to his adversary heralds of arms, carrying before them a lion's tail; that emblem indicating their office, and the nature of the message of which they are the bearers. As soon as the army of the one who has declared war comes near the enemy's camp it halts, and heralds are again sent to announce its approach. If the latter has not yet assembled all his forces, it informs his adversary, who is obliged to wait until he has collected his people, and is ready to fight. The Bushmens, who are their neighbours towards the north-west, are the only people with whom they wage perpetual war; they treat these brigands like wild beasts, follow them by the track to discover their haunts, and massacre without mercy those who fall into their hands, making no distinction of age or sex.

Manner of fighting.

Laws of war.

They are very fond of the chase, to which they set out in numerous parties; the married and unmarried women often attend these expeditions, which last two or even three months. To subdue a lion, they begin by forming a circle round him, and by approaching him gradually towards the

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Lion hunt.

centre. The wounded animal immediately attacks one of the hunters, who avoids him by suddenly throwing himself on the ground covered by his shield, while the others run and pierce him with their hassagays. The conqueror re-enters his village in triumph. Hunting the elephant is most laborious. The Caffres are seldom able to inflict the wound sufficiently deep to render it mortal.

Dancing, music.

Their most favourite diversion is a dance very regular, stiff, and ridiculous;* accompanied with a most disagreeable air. The only musical instrument seen among them consisted of a stick, upon which was extended a chord of cat-gut; it is peculiar to the Hottentot *Gonaquas*, the ancient inhabitants of the southern promontory of Africa, who, since the enlargement of the European colony, have ceased to constitute a tribe, and are at present dispersed over Caffraria†.

Hereditary chiefs.

Each horde of Caffres has ordinarily its hereditary chief, called *inkoossie*. Whenever many hordes are assembled in the same canton, they have at their head a supreme chief, esteemed the sovereign of the canton. The chiefs exercise an absolute power; but in cases of injustice or usurpation, the council remonstrates in the name of the people.

The right of the strongest does not exist among the Caffres; no one is allowed to be his own judge excepting where a man surprises his wife in the act of adultery. Unfortunately the example of European corruption already exerts its influence on the manners of this pastoral people. The arrogance of the colonists, frauds committed in commerce, and abuse of force, joined to the instigations of some bad characters of the colony and of revolted Hottentots, have brought on disastrous wars between the Koussas and the colonists, wars which have left behind them revengeful sentiments; nothing, however, is more easy than treating with these people, by appealing to their natural

* Lichtenstein, p. 356. † Alberti, p. 165. Barrow, 2d edit. I.

equity. Mr. Barrow's former embassy to Gaika, who is still their chief, was not productive of any lasting effects. The colonists, with peace in their mouths, secretly excited the Caffre rebels to acts of aggression. A war broke out again in 1818, which terminated, as we have seen, (in 1821,) by the British depriving them of their best territory, now named Albany. A line of military is posted along the Keyskamma, and the Caffre sovereign has consented to receive missionaries into his territory, and to celebrate fairs on the boundaries, for the purpose of commercial intercourse, which had been interrupted by the war. Driven from their most fertile lands into a desert too barren for their support, this interesting and once happy people seem destined to the extinction so lately suffered by their neighbours, the Gonaquas, or the still more degraded fate of the wretched Bushmen. Want infallibly produces despair; the frontier colonists, instead of being secured by this precipitate advance of their boundary, or by unheeded proclamations for the preservation of peace and amity with the Caffres, may possibly yet have cause to regret that cupidity which has added the impulse of hunger to the thirst of vengeance.

Arithmetic. Chronology.

The arithmetic of the Koussas is confined to addition, which is performed by counting on the fingers; they are without signs for decimal notation. Their longest measure of time is the lunar month; an addition soon results that surpasses the bounds of their arithmetic; they are unable to determine a very inconsiderable period of time, of the past as well as the future; they succeed better in marking with precision the hour of the day; this is effected by extending the arm towards the point where the sun at the time is seen on the horizon. To this ignorance of calculation, and total want of chronology thence resulting, must be attributed their deficient information respecting the origin and the history of their nation; every thing known by them on the subject may be reduced to this:—"In the country where the sun rises was another country whence the first Caffres have come, and in general, all the inha-

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bitants, as well as animals of the globe; at the same time both sun and moon appeared to give light to the earth, as well as trees, grass, and other vegetables, for the nourishment of men and cattle."

The Tambookas.

After passing the river Key, or its tributary streams the Zomo and Bassah, you enter the country of the Tambookas; the true name of which, according to a modern traveller, is *Ma-Thimba.* It is from these people that the Koussas derive their songs, composed less of words than of syllables unintelligible to themselves.* They possess iron and copper mixed with silver; at least their rings are composed of a similar metal.† On the other side of the Nabagana are

The Hambounas.

the *Hambounas;* their identity with the *Mambookas,* supported by Lichtenstein, is not altogether incontestible. The first name is that given by the Gonaquas to a colony bordering on the Tambookas; the second is the name that the traveller Van-Reenen,‡ heard given in the country, a name also known to Sparmann. According to Lichtenstein, the Koussas call them Immbo. They cannot be distinguished among these obscure and uncertain denominations. Among the colonies remote from the coast are the *Abbatoana* and *Maduana.*

Bay of Lagoa.

The coast of Natal is terminated by the bay of Lorenzo-Marquez, to which a maritime lake, situated on the northern border, has caused to be given the Portuguese name of bay *da Lagoa,* that is the Bay of the Small Lake. It has sometimes been confounded with the bay of Algoa, situated eight degrees farther south. The fertile borders of this beautiful and large bay have often tempted the ambition of Europeans; the establishment which could there be formed might export great quantities of ivory. The rivers Mafumo and Maquinis, or Saint-Esprit, which there empty themselves, are still traced according to ancient charts, and have not been explored by any known traveller.

* Lichtenstein, p. 417. † Sparmann, p. 452.

‡ Van-Reenen quoted by Bruns, Afrika, III. 70.

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In ascending the one or the other of these rivers, will be found the numerous tribes of the nation of the Betjouanas, that have been visited by travellers from the Cape. This nation is called *Briquas* by the Hottentots, from whom they are separated by the inhospitable desert of the Bushmen. M. Barrow, in writing this name *Bushwana*, has scarcely committed a serious error, because the difficulty of expressing the precise sounds of African idioms ought to make us even doubt the orthography given with the greatest appearance of accuracy. We are told that it also takes the name of *Moulitjouanas* and *Sitjouanas*. In order to decide which of these names is the true patronymic of the nation, its etymology ought to be known.

The Betjouanas.

The country of this people, situated between the twentieth and twenty-fifth degrees of latitude, has a very agreeable and varied aspect; forests of mimosa are intermixed with fine pasturage. The Betjouanas are divided into several tribes: on entering the country from the south, that of *Matjapings*, on the river *Kurumana*, is first met with; it is the least powerful. One degree farther north, on the river Sétabi, are found the *Murulongs*; their number amounts to ten thousand. Some years have now elapsed since these two tribes, then united at the source Takoon, constituted the renowned city of *Latakoo*, of which Barrow has left so brilliant a picture. Though shifted from its former site, it is still as large as the *new* city of the same name, fifty-six miles to the southward, at the source of the Krooman river.* The *Matsaroquas*, to the west, on the lower confines of Kurumana, border upon the Hottentot Dammaras. To the north of Murulong are the *Wanketzees*. The *Tammahas*, otherwise called red *Briquas*, a very numerous colony, occupy several villages to the north-east of Matjapings, to the south east of the Murulongs, and north of the Kharamankeys, a tribe of Hottentot-Coranas, with whom they live in most perfect harmony, frequently uniting in marriage, with a view of rendering

Appearance of the country.

Names of the tribes.

* Campbell's Second Journey, I. Map, and passim.

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their friendship more intimate. The people of *Khojas*, to the north-east of the preceding, are also very numerous, but little known. Three days journey to the north-east of Wanketsees, and due north of the Khojas, are stationed the *Mukhuruzis*, under a chief renowned for his bravery. Lastly, to the north-east of these inhabit the *Maquinis*, the most powerful and rich of the Betjouanas tribes. A Matjaping who had visited them, assured M. Lichtenstein, that they were numberless, like the sand. It is they who furnish to the others, knives, needles, ear-rings, and bracelets of iron and copper, which travellers have been so much astonished to find among these savages. They extract the metal from a chain of mountains lying between them and the *Mukhurûzis*. Campbell, in 1821, penetrated as far as Kurechanee, the capital of the Marootzees, and was favourably received. They have made considerable progress in the arts, and understand the art of working iron and copper, with the first of which their country abounds. Their country lies on the twenty-fourth parallel of south latitude. Though not in immediate contact with the last Portuguese posts of Monomotapa, they occasionally travel down to these settlements; and it was by their accounts that the other Betjouanas became at all acquainted with the existence of white men, of which the greatest part of them doubted until they had seen the Dutch among them. The Mahalaseela, to the north-east, who use elephants as beasts of burden, sell beads, and live near the great water; the Matteeveylai to the east, who live near the great water, and have long hair; the Mollaquams, who live to the north-east, and bring beads to the Bouquains; the Malchaquam, eight days journey to the east; lastly, the Bouquains and Wanketzees, are the immediate neighbours of the Marootzees. Beads with them are the great medium of circulation. The art of inoculation for small-pox is known and practised at Kurechanee.* The population is estimated at 16,000, that of each of the Latakees, 4000.

Tribe of the Maquinis.

* Campbell, I. 257.

These different states, under the government of particular chiefs, who are often engaged in war, are nevertheless united by language, manners, and customs. Being great travellers, the Betjouanas all know each other well; the sons of good families, and principally of the chiefs who aspire to the succession, are constrained to make long journeys, for the sake of forming friendly connexions and alliances useful to their tribe, in case of necessity.

Manners of the Betjouanas.

Less tall than the Caffres, and as well proportioned, their form is even more elegant; the brown tint of their skin is between the shining black of the negro and the yellow ground of the Hottentot; the form of their face exactly resembles that of the Caffres (Koussas;) excepting that the nose is more frequently arched, and the lips like those of the European; the expression of their eyes, and a certain something about the mouth, often gives them an appearance of men possessing great sensibility without refinement; the free and harmonious play of their countenance, of their gestures, and of all their muscles, reflect, as from a mirror, the movements of their minds; their language is sonorous, rich in vowels and aspirates, and well accented; an elocution approaching to chanting, joined to great sweetness, gives it all the charm of the Italian.*

Their physical nature.

Language.

Desirous of information, they assail strangers with questions; and the excess of their curiosity is often troublesome. They inquire concerning every thing new to them, however little it may concern them; yet a refusal does not offend, and a look only, or gesture, is sufficient to put a stop to their importunities. The goodness of their memory is shown by the facility with which they retain all the Dutch names, and even entire phrases, which they pronounce better than the Hottentots born in the colony. At a much greater distance from the state of nature than the Caffres, they are masters of the art of dissimulation, and understand the mode of forwarding their personal interests with address. Always active and in motion, ever without

* Lichtenstein, Archives Ethnographiques, cahier I.

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a settled occupation, they sleep little during the day; during the full moon, they often even pass the night in dancing and singing. Of moderate desires, they inure themselves to fatigue by running whole days without requiring any other food than that which is presented to them in the uncultivated and naked plains of their parched countries. At home they live chiefly on the curds of milk. Meats furnished by the chase are most agreeable to them, they seldom kill cattle. They eat the flesh of the hyæna, the wolf, fox, cat, rhinoceros, and swan; they even become, it is said, in certain circumstances, anthropophagi; they have, however, an unconquerable aversion to fish, nor will the greatest hunger force them to eat it. The ashes in which they roast their meat are substituted for salt, which is entirely wanting in their country. They drink water only in the greatest extremity; they do not even use it for washing themselves. They do not understand, like the Koussas, the process by which a fermented liquor is extracted from seeds; but they immediately and gladly accept wine and brandy given them by Europeans. The use of certain herbs, both in the form of smoke and of powder, was familiar to them long before the arrival of the Europeans; they have also given to tobacco the particular name of *montiouko*, while the Hottentot tribes, who also smoke wild herbs, especially dakha *(Phlomis leoncerus)* have adopted, in their language, the shortened word *twak*.* The Marotzees cultivate tobacco, both for trade and home consumption. Their clothes are neat, and made of the skins of different animals, such as civets, jackals, wild cats, and antelopes. The men conceal their nakedness under a leathern bandage, like the Jagas, and the women wear several aprons, one over the other; they also cover with care the breast, leaving the belly uncovered.

Food.

Dress.

Among their ornaments may be observed rings made of yellow copper, six or eight of which hang from each ear; elastic bracelets also of the same metal, and large ivory

* Lichtenstein, Relation sur les Betiouanas, Ann. des Voyages, tom V.

rings surrounding the lower part of the arm. Not having saws, they soften the ivory in milk, and then cut it with considerable difficulty with a knife. They appear to possess the art of making brass-wire; for the fine copper thread which they very ingeniously wind round the tail of a giraffe to make their bracelets, is quite a peculiar metal, and this kind of merchandize does not form an object of exchange with European vessels employed in African commerce. Yet M. Lichtenstein counted seventy-two of these bracelets on the arms of one woman. They are manufactured at Kurechanee. The construction of their houses and stables is very superior to that of the other inhabitants of Southern Africa; but the women have alone the merit of it. The form of their houses is generally circular; the arrangement of the parts appears to vary according to the situation and season: the interior is light, clean, and well ventilated. Pottery is also another kind of industry reserved for the women; they use, in its formation, the same ferruginous clay, mixed with mica, that serves them for anointing their bodies. The vessels are exactly hemispherical, and without feet; and, notwithstanding their want of thickness, are very strong. They also make pitchers very narrow at the bottom, in which milk may be kept fresh for a considerable time.* The Betjouanas also shew much cleverness in smith work. Their instruments are hammers and pincers of the same form as ours, only a little more clumsy; a large stone serves them as an anvil. They understand tempering iron, and the making of steel; and, although badly furnished with tools, undertook to repair the carriages and iron tools of the Dutch who came to see them. They highly valued the saws, files, scissars, and nails, shewn to them, and immediately understood their use. The bark of several trees, and the threads of several species of rush, furnishes them with materials for making strong packthread. The art with which they cut

Houses.

Utensils and instruments.

* Lichtenstein, Annales des Voyages, t. V. p. 358. Barrow, Narrative of a Journey amongst the Boushouanas, after the Voyage to Cochinchina.

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figures on the sheaths of their knives, hung round their necks, on their hassagays, spoons, and other wooden utensils, proves that they do not want genius for sculpture. In some houses at Kurechanee, there are figures, pillars, &c. carved or moulded in hard clay, and painted in different colours, that would not disgrace European workmen. They know how to paint and to glaze their pottery. Ivory, rushes, leather, wood, clay, stone, are all ingeniously wrought. Their iron is remarkably fine.

Morality and religion.

The Betjouanas have an idea of a soul, the seat of which they place in the heart: they say of an honest man, that his heart is white. In the same manner, they associate the ideas of wicked and black. Honesty, loyalty, and courage, are with them principal virtues; but the rights of property are not held by them very sacred. They believe in an invisible master of nature, supreme distributor of good and evil, whom they call *mourimo*, analogous to *mourinna*, king or lord: the sentiment held towards him appears to be nearer allied to fear than love. The high priest who presides over religious ceremonies, is the second personage after the king. Their ceremonies are chiefly the circumcision of boys, and the consecration of cattle. The priests are also employed in the observation of the stars, and the arrangement of the calendar: they divide the year into thirteen lunar months, and distinguish the planets from the other stars. Venus, Sirius, Acharnar, and some others, have particular names, known to few. To religious ideas may be undoubtedly referred the folly of the Betjouanas in prognosticating future events by means of dice, of a pyramidal form, made with the hoofs of antelopes. Their

Christian missions.

conversion to Christianity was long attempted in vain; they appeared to laugh at our doctrines, and to jeer at our mode of worship. When spoken to concerning the God of peace, they answered, he may be as angry as he pleases, we cannot give up going to war. Of five missionaries, there was only one to whom they shewed any civility or attachment, and that was on account of his having made known to them the use of the plough. Of late, however,

they have all expressed the greatest willingness to be converted. There is a mission at New Latakoo, in the very heart of their territory; and every one of the princes visited by Mr. Campbell expressed a wish to have missionaries settled amongst their people. There is another at Griqua Town, and both are most carefully attended by the natives. Indeed, preoccupied by no other creed, and impressed with ideas of the superiority of Europeans, whom they call *gods*, the open curious mind of the Betjuana cannot be supposed to be obstinate against conviction. The missionaries complain chiefly of their feeble reasoning powers; but, after all, these perhaps differ little from other nations in the same stage of civilization. Wherever the missionaries have settled, the people have become better clothed, more industrious, and have left off the predatory *commando*, which indeed is nothing but an expedition undertaken to deprive the inhabitants of some neighbouring village of their lives and cattle; but to which all the false glory of war is attached in the ideas of these simple men. The chiefs of the Griquas, Tammakas, and many other tribes, now attend with solemn regularity on the preaching of the Gospel: even the wild, persecuted, but not ungrateful Bushman, listens with delight and thankfulness to the messengers of peace. Communities of Bushmen, to the extent of many hundreds, have been reclaimed from the precarious life of the desert to the blessings of civilized life, and are highly spoken of by their benefactors, the missionaries, for devout and regular conduct. In this direction, where there is no political jealousy, Christianity now makes a rapid and steady progress.

Their arms differ little from those of the Caffres, and consist of the hassagay and the club. M. Lichtenstein does not mention the shield; but many of the tribes use it.* For some years past, they have also employed against the Bushmens the same poisoned arrows that they seize from these implacable brigands; for they are unacquaint-

* Campbell, vol. I.

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ed with the mode of making them. The population, instead of being diminished by the frequent wars in which they are engaged, is increased among the victorious tribes, in consequence of the number of women and young children whom they take prisoners. Without knowing at present the trade of slaves, the Betjouanas appear to conceive the profit they might make by the sale of their prisoners. They offered to exchange with M. Lichtenstein's companions, children of ten years old, for sheep.

Particulars respecting polygamy.

The disproportion between the number of men and women, which is general throughout the countries bordering on the tropic, has given rise to, and perpetuated polygamy, at the same time that it retains the women in a certain state of servility. As soon as a young man can think of establishing himself, he lays out a part of his property in the purchase of a wife, who generally costs from ten to twelve oxen. The first business of the new married woman is to build a house, for which she must herself fell the necessary quantity of wood: in this work she is sometimes assisted by her mother and sisters. The building a stable for cattle, the cultivation of the fields, and all the household work, equally forms a part of the servile duties of a Betjouana woman.

As soon as the cattle are increased in number, the Betjouana thinks of increasing his family by purchasing a second wife, who is equally obliged to build a house with stable and garden. Thus the riches of a man are estimated by the number of his wives. The women are very fruitful, and a Betjouana, surrounded by a numerous family, resembles much one of the patriarchs delineated in the Scripture.* The Barroloos live at the distance of twelve days journey north of the Betjouanas;† they live in large cities; understand casting iron and copper; can engrave with taste on wood and ivory; their soil is fertile, shaded by trees, and watered by rivers. This is the account given by the Betjouanas to European travellers; and it is con-

The Barroloos.

* Lichtenstein, l. c. † Barrow, compare with Lichtenstein.

firmed by the late researches of Mr. Campbell. The Wanketzeens, Marotzees, Mashows, Yattabas, and Bouquains, though they speak a dialect of the Betjuana language, are not called Betjuanas, but Boroolongs. The above particulars then apply perfectly, as we have seen, to those nations of the Betjuan territory comprehended under the term Boroolongs. The country is well supplied with wood and water, and very fertile; and they both possess considerable acquaintance with the arts, and trade with nations to the east, having direct communication with the Portuguese.

Connexion with the great desert and Congo.

From the travels of Campbell it appears that the farthest country to the north-west, known to the Betjouanas or Boroolongs, is named *Mampoor*. The *Kallyharry* are a people living a month's journey to the north-west of Latakoo, from whom the latter procure the skins of the wild cat. North of the Orange river lies the country of the Great Namaquas, which, to about lat. 26° south, and long. 19° west, is watered by the tributary streams of the Fish and Orange rivers, and therefore tolerably fertile, but to the east and north of this lies the great southern Zahara, or desert, extending probably to the equator, and inhabited only by wandering Bushmen. This vast region of sand, studded here and there by trees, is bounded on the eastern side by the Betjouanas, Marotzees, and by other tribes, which they denominate as follows:*—north of Kurechanee, the Moquana, Bamangwatoo; north-east, the Macallaka; east, Bapalangye, Massoona; east by south, Bahatja; south-east, Bassetza, Booropolongs, Maribana, Babooklola, Bamoohopa, Bapoohene; south south-east, Bapo, Bammatow, Balicana, Bahooba, Bapeeree, Buklokla, Moolehe, Moohoobeloo, Moomanyanna, Mohawpee, Bommaleetee, Peeree. Besides these tribes, or nations, to the south south-east, Barrow and Campbell ascertained, that great hordes of both native and Betjuana Bushmen inhabit the country south-east of Latakoo, immediately

* Campbell, I. 271.

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behind the Tambookas, and in a line drawn from Port Natal to Latakoo. These Bushmen possess herds of cattle. The Wanketzees are situated to the west of the Maretzees, from whom they are divided by a chain of mountains passing from north-east to south-east; they are commanded by a treacherous prince called Makabba, and at present bear the worst character of all the southern tribes except the Bushmen. Travelling from sunrise to sunset, *Mampoor*, situated on the sea-side, is two moons journey from Lattakoo, and three moons when the travellers are encumbered with cattle, the plunder of these being the object of this distant march. The desert beyond Kallyharry bears mimosa trees, and others, unknown to the Latakoos, somewhat resembling the willow. The surface of this great desert, which reaches from the Namaquas to Long Mountain and the Wanketzees, extending 1000 miles to the north, and 500 to the west of Latakoo, is not perfectly level, and though generally covered with sand, has tufts of withered grass in the hollows. The water-melon is pretty copious; water is extremely scarce. There is a nation at its farthest extremity called Quabee, or Grass Knee.)* The extent of this desert, as obtained from natives, brings it to the 10th degree of Southern latitude; in short, into the country of the Giagas or Jagas of Congo; who, it is evident, are nothing but the wandering Bushmen of the desert, and the desolating commandos of the Betjuanas and Booroolongs. By such inquiries the benevolent labours of the missionaries expand the boundaries of science; but we have to resume the subject of central Africa in the course of the next Book.

Mampoor.

Inhambane.

In resuming the description of the maritime countries, we shall pass over in haste *Inhambane*, extending from Lagoa bay, as far as Cape Corrientes, where a fort built by the Portuguese points out the southern limit of the possessions claimed by this nation. Cape Delgado is the north-

* Campbell, II. p. 120.

ern frontier. This whole extent of coast is called the *Government of Sena*, or *Mozambique*. The coast of Inhambane, is covered with pasturage and destitute of wood.* Each village has its independent chief.† The country of Sabia contains nothing remarkable. The kingdom of Botonga is often called Sofala, or Sephala, the latter appears to be only the maritime part of it; the name of Sofala denotes in the Hebrew and Arabic languages, *Low country*.‡ Four hundred executioners constantly precede the king of this country, who assumes the titles of *Grand-sorcerer*, and *Grand-robber*. These words perhaps excite in the mind of an African, ideas equally just and liberal, as the phrases applied to the paternal wisdom and august magnificence of our sovereigns excite in the mind of an European courtier. Four ministers traverse the kingdom yearly, one represents the person of the monarch, a second his eyes, a third his mouth, and a fourth his ears.

The kingdom of Sofala, or Botonga.

The golden treasures of this country have become quite a common place among the Arabian geographers; this precious metal, however, undoubtedly comes from the interior. The soil is fertile, the climate tolerable. The approaches to the coast are dreaded on account of the numberless reefs and banks of sand. It is asserted that among the inhabitants there is a race of gigantic form, who deliver up their prisoners of war to a nation in the interior, to be devoured.§ Those residing on the coast have embraced the Mahometan religion, and in some measure the Arabic language. They are ignorant of the art of dyeing their cotton stuffs.

The state of *Monomotapa*, situated behind Sofala, is, like the latter, watered by the *Zambeze*, one of the great rivers of Africa, that empties itself into the sea by four mouths or branches; namely, in proceeding from the north to the south, the *Quilitane*, the *Cuama*, which ap-

Empire of Monomotapa.

* Ramusio, Collection des Voyages, t. I. p. 392.

† Bucquoy, Voyage, trad. allem. p. 22.

‡ Hartmanni, Edrisi Africa, p. 109; Reland Palestina, p. 372.

§ Bucquoy, p. 4 and 5.

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pears to be the principal, the *Luabo*, and the *Luaboil*. The natives say that this river originates from a great lake, and receives its name from a village not far from its source. It is very rapid, and in some places a league in breadth. It ascends as far as the kingdom of *Sicambé*, above Tête, where there is a cataract of an astonishing height, and constant falls for the space of twenty leagues, as far as the kingdom of Chicova, where are found mines of silver. The *Zambese* inundates the country in the same manner as the Nile; but in the month of April. In sailing upon this river, it is very hazardous to plunge the arm or foot into the water, on account of the numerous and daring crocodiles.* Monomotapa abounds in rice, maize, fruits, and beasts; it is cultivated along the rivers, but the rest of the land, although uncultivated, appears fertile, since vast forests are found there inhabited by elephants, rhinoceroses, wild oxen called *meroos*, tigers strong enough to carry off a calf, zebras, antelopes, and monkeys.† The hippopotamus and tortoise attain an enormous size. The Portuguese have bred a few horned cattle; but horses are altogether wanting. The mineral kingdom appears interesting. Gold dust every where abounds; the Portuguese collect it in the environs of *Tête*, the natives in the province of *Manica*; in addition to these are enumerated the gold mines of *Boro* and *Quaticuy*, where this precious metal lies imbedded in a rock.

Productions.

The kingdom of *Butua* is considered the richest in gold. Masses of native silver have been met with. The natives diligently work some iron mines.

Etymology of the name.

The name of *Monomotapa* signifies, according to some authors, the king of Motapa, it is written by others *Beno-Motapa*, which, according to an ingenious observation, appears to signify in Arabic "a people of mercenary soldiers," and consequently only an appellative given to these nations by the Arabs, who have conquered the sea-coasts.‡

* Thomann, Voyage, p. 133. † Idem, p. 118, 119. et 122.

‡ Lichtenstein, Archives Ethnograph. t. I. p. 295.

However it may be, the sovereign, to whom the title of emperor is given by the Portuguese, formerly extended his dominion over a great number of vassal kings: he is now, say they, one of the most powerful princes of Africa. The great edifices of Butua, covered with inscriptions in an unknown language, appear to be silent evidences of ancient civilization extinguished during the presence of civil wars, or which may have disappeared with the nation, great both in commerce and arms, of which these monuments appear to be erections.

Monuments.

The provinces and cities of the empire of Monomotapa are not better known than they were in the sixteenth century. *Zimbaoe* is the collective name of every great city, like *fou* in China. It is the name of the emperor's residence, which is sixty leagues from the sea, is a very populous city, and situated on the banks of the great river. *Tette* and *Sena* are two Portuguese forts; the first, also called *San-Tago*, is distant one hundred and twenty leagues east of the great cataract. The Portuguese still possess on this river the post of *Chicova* and *Massapa*, near the gold mountains of mount *Fura*. The post of *Zumbo*, where the Banians manufacture gold plate, has been seized from the Portuguese by the natives.* The people of this country go nearly naked, like those of the western coast; they are superstitious, and believe in magic and enchantments. According to reports which seem doubtful, the king, on days of ceremony, carries suspended at his side a small spade as an emblem of agriculture. The children of the great men are retained at court as hostages; and the king sends every year an officer into the provinces. It is at that time the custom for the people to testify their loyalty by putting out their fires, and relighting them by fire taken from the officer's torch. It is said that the emperor's guard consists of a squadron of women lightly

Provinces and cities.

* Report of Dominican Missionaries, cited in the Diario di Roma, February, 1816.

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armed. After all, is it ascertained whether this famous monarch exists at present, as an independent sovereign?

Passage across the continent of Southern Africa.

A more interesting question for a traveller is the possibility of crossing the unknown country between Monomotapa and Congo. The Portuguese and African slave merchants have already often conducted convoys of negroes from Angola to Sena, and from Sena to Angola. The two posts of *Pedras-negras*, in the interior of Congo, and of *Chicova*, in the interior of Monomotapa, are the respective points of departure; the distance is three hundred and twenty-five leagues, and its performance occupies a whole season: wandering hordes are frequently met, and elevated plateaus are crossed where gold in powder is collected. The reports received from Portuguese exiles residing at Sena, and transmitted by two learned men, M. Correa de Serra, and M. Constancio,* leave no room for reasonable doubts. The objection drawn from the declaration of the governor of Mozambique, who declares himself ignorant of these journeys, loses its weight, when it is considered, that it is not at Mozambique, but at Chicova, or at least at Sena, that information of the fact must be collected. Moreover, the governor consulted by M. Salt, appeared to have scarcely any idea of the circumstances generally known concerning the geography of Monomotapa.

Repulsed from the interior, our curiosity must rapidly survey the remaining part of the western coast governed by the Portuguese.

Coast of Mozambique.

The coast of Mozambique every where presents dangerous reefs and shoals, interspersed with a great number of small islands. The rivers, although very wide at their mouth, come not from a great distance; they take their rise from the foot of a long and high chain of Mountains, to which, on account of their splintered peaks, has been given the Portuguese name of *Picos Fragosos*.

* Observador Portuguez, Periodical Collection, No. IV.

City of the same name.

The port of the Isle of Mozambique, although of difficult entrance,* is very good, and can afford secure shelter to many vessels. The Portuguese have a fort very well built, and hold under their jurisdiction the inhabitants, who are Moors, and are governed by a Sheerif. The Portuguese ships, on their voyage to India, enter and remain in the port of Mozambique during a month; formerly, among other merchandize, they took in slaves, which they carried to India; but King Joseph the second, under the ministry of Pombal, forbad this commerce, and the present Queen has enforced the order. The principal objects of exportation at present are gold and elephants' teeth; these last are very abundant; they are kept in spacious magazines,† and are shipped off during the month of August every year for Goa. There is also considerable trade carried on between this place and Madagascar; and all the commerce of these countries appears to be in the hands and at the charge of government.

The unhealthy state of Mozambique has induced the inhabitants to build at the bottom of the bay the agreeable and large village of *Mesuril*, at this time more populous than the city.‡ The governor's palace raises itself majestically above a forest of cocoa, cashew, and mango trees. The principal nation on this coast is that of *Macouas;* the *Monjous*, also the *Muzimbes*, live in the interior. The name of the first of these nations appears to merit every attention of geographers. It appears to furnish the solution of an ancient geographical problem. The territory of *Vakvak*, or *Wakwak* extends, according to the Arabians, from Zanguebar as far as Sofala; it is precisely the situation of the country of the Macouas: are not the two names identical? A slight alteration of orthography may have confounded these names in the Arabic.§ Such

The Macouas, and the country of Vakvak.

* Thomann, p. 54, 55.

† Collin, Notices respecting Mozambique, in Annales des Voyages, t. IX. p. 313.

‡ Salt, Second Voyage.

§ واقواق (ouakouak) ماقواق (makouak.)

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is the conclusion to which a rational etymology would seem to lead us. The truth is, that *Macou*, in the dialects of southern Africa, merely signifies a white man, and is applied by the inhabitants of the interior, indifferently to the Dutch and English at the Cape of Good Hope, or to the Arabs and Portuguese on the shores of Mozambique.* Anciently, Wakwak may have had the same signification, so rapidly do the dialects of Africa degenerate: and the Makasses of the west coast,† north of the Orange, probably derive their name from a similar origin.

The coast Querimbe.

The northern part of the government of Mozambique derives is name of *Querimbe* from a small island where the Portuguese have a fort, and where they allow the French to trade.‡ *Obio* is another of their posts. The islands of this coast are under the government of an Arab sheik, a vassal of Portugal, whose possessions terminate at Cape Delgado.

* Campbell, II. p. 358. † Above, p. 339.

‡ Blancard, Commerce des Indes Orientales, p. 20.

# BOOK LXXII.

## AFRICA.

*Continuation of the description of Africa.—Eastern coast, or Zanguebar and Ajan.—Remarks on the Interior of Southern Africa.*



THOSE regions which are least known attract more particularly the attention of writers who are anxious to satisfy the curiosity of their philosophical readers. We shall, therefore, devote a whole book to the description of countries, which both English and French compilers of geography generally dispatch in two or three pages.

Zanguebar according to the Arabians.

Cape Delgado determines the southern limit of *Zanguebar*, or the coast of *Zangues*, *Zingues*, or *Zindges*, for the name given by the Arabians to the inhabitants is written in these three ways. The Arabian accounts are those only which appear to embrace the whole of continental Zanguebar. A great river, filled with crocodiles, sandy deserts, a burning climate, leopards of a large size, innumerable elephants, giraffes, and wild asses or zebras, mines of iron, from which the natives derive their favourite ornaments; the dourah and banana, as alimentary plants; as beasts of burden, oxen, which are also used in war; such are the remarks of physical geography which can be collected in the writings of Ibn-al-Wardi,* Massoudi,† Edrisi,‡ and Bakoui.§ The country of Zingues, or Zindges,

* Notices and Extracts from Manuscripts, II. 33.

† Etienne Quatremère, Mém. sur l'Egypte, &c. vol. II. 181.

‡ Hartmann, Edrisi Africa, 101—104.

§ Notices, &c. II. 395.

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extends, according to the Arabians, from Abyssinia as far as the territory of *Ouakouak*, that is to say, to the country of Makouas, or the coast of Mozambique. It is in length seven hundred *farsangs*, by which are probably meant Arabic miles, for there are just seven hundred from Cape Delgado to Madagoxo, otherwise the whole coast from the straits of Babel-Mandel to Sofala must be included. The capital is *Kabila*, a name in which Quiloa may be recognized. The people live without law, and without any definite form of religion. Every one worships the object of his fancy—a plant, an animal, or a piece of iron; they, nevertheless, acknowledge a supreme God, whom they call *Maklandilou*, a word which calls to mind the *Molango* of the inhabitants of Sofala, and which thus attaches the Zingues to the race of Caffres. The king, who is said to assume the title of "Wakliman, or Son of the Supreme Lord,"* marches at the head of 300,000 troops mounted on oxen. The Zingues conquered, during the third age of the Hegira, a part of Eastern Arabia and of Irac.

European accounts. Quiloa.

Europeans have visited only the islands and some maritime places of Zanguebar; we will follow them by ascending from south to north. The island of *Quiloa*, with the city of the same name, is situated opposite a peninsula, formed by two great rivers, the most important of which is called *Coavo*. This situation gives it three safe ports, spacious, and independent of each other. The banks of the rivers are ornamented by large trees, with villages interspersed, subject to the authority of the king of Quiloa. The island, accessible at all times, is the mart for the trade of slaves of the whole coast of Zanguebar. The continent produces a species of teak-wood, as durable as that from Surat, of the greatest beauty, and fit for the building of ships. The sugar-cane, cotton tree, and indigo, are its na-

* The word *Wakliman*, quoted after Massoudi by Quatremère, appears to be Arabian. *Wakil*, is a governor, or viceroy. *Iman*, the name of the Arab sovereigns of Yemen, Mascate, and Adel. The pretended king of the Zingues, may be only a vassal, former or present, of the Iman of Adel or Mascate.

tural products. The baobab, the tamarind tree, the cedar, the tree that produces the gum copal, and the coffee plant of Madagascar, are also found here. Game, and herds of every species of animal, particularly of the wild ox, as well as river and sea-fish, are here abundant. Elephants, rhinoceroses, panthers, lions, leopards, wild asses, or zebras, are often seen coming to the banks of the two rivers to quench their thirst. Fruits and vegetables are scarce. Millet forms the principal food of the natives.

The king is a negro, and receives much respect, but is under the guardianship of a Moorish vizier, called *Mallindane,* who governs supremely in the name of this titular monarch, whom he may even depose by conferring the dignity on another of his own choice.* This vizier appears to be a governor sent by the powerful sheik of the island of Zanzibar. "The inhabitants of the island," says a learned author, "saw with concern that Quiloa alone had all the trade of the coast; they invaded this city in 1787. The king of Quiloa ceded to that of Zanzibar half the profits annually received from the trade of slaves. For the better observance of this treaty the sovereign of the latter island has stationed a representative at Quiloa. Many French trading vessels resort thither every year.†" The women cultivate millet and potatoes from custom and necessity; the men are employed either in fishing, hunting, or sleeping; some women also make mats and coarse stuffs for their own use.‡

Island of Monfia.

The island of *Monfia,* governed by a sheik in the time of Ramusis, is at this time only inhabited by wild oxen, which the inhabitants of Quiloa come here to hunt.

Island of Zanzibar.

Zanzibar is the largest and most important of all these islands; it is twenty-five leagues in length and five in breadth. It is said to have an excellent harbour. Orange and lemon trees display their golden fruits by the side of

* Cossigny, Moyen d'Améliorer les Colonies, t. III. p. 247 et suiv.

† Blancard, Commerce des Indes Orientales, p. 21.

‡ Cossigny, ibid. III. 266.

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the cocoa and banana. Vegetables and rice are abundant. The inhabitants, like those of the neighbouring islands, are Mahometans, and governed by a system of laws. The cities are adorned with mosques. The number of inhabitants is computed at 60.000, of which 300 are Arabs, and the rest a mixed race. The sheik communicates with the princes of Arabia; he is said to have expressed a wish to be placed under the protection of England.* The exports consist of slaves, gum, ivory, antimony, and blue vitriol.

Island of Pemba.

*Pemba* is still more fertile in fruits and corn. The inhabitants, a timid people, are dressed in stuffs of silk and cotton brought from India. Like the other islanders they sail in their frail barks to Melinda and Madagascar.

Doubts and questions.

Here ends altogether modern information. The interesting descriptions of Lobo, Barros, and Conta, are already three centuries old.† Is the city of *Mombaza*, situated in an island formed by two branches of a river, still in the possession of the Arabs of Mascate, who, in 1698, drove out the Portuguese? Are the seventeen churches that adorned this city, well fortified by nature and art, still mosques? With whom do the inhabitants of these fertile and healthy places at present trade? Does the large and beautiful city of *Melinda* still continue the pride of its banks? Does she still see in her gardens the most delicious oranges? Do the Arabs, who now possess it, array themselves in silk and purple? Is the king always carried on the shoulders of his courtiers, and received by a choir of priests and young women, who offer him incense and flowers? Who now reigns in *Lamo*, a country famous for the large asses it produces? Over *Pate*, whence the Arabs of Mascate drove out European traders in 1692? Over *Jubo* and its coast, infested by serpents? Over *Brava*, or *Berua*, a small aristocratic republic, the inhabitants of which worshipped stones anointed with the oil of fish?

* Salt, Second Journey into Abyssinia, &c.

† See the present Work, vol. II. p. 485, and seq.

These are questions that would have been resolved by the learned and intrepid Seetzen, if an enemy's hand had not cut the thread of a life so precious; for at the moment in which this traveller died, poisoned by the order of the Iman of Yemen, he was preparing to visit Melinda, and to collect among the Arabs of that city traditions and manuscripts relative to their knowledge of Africa.

Nevertheless, the principal features of its geography are incapable of having been changed.

Delta of the river Quilimancy.

The cities of Melinda, Lamo, and Pate, appear to be situated in the *delta* of a great river, called *Quilimancy*, which appears to be the same as that which, under the name of *Zebée*, descends from the mountains of Abyssinia. The banks of the river, inundated and enriched by its waters, perhaps may correspond with the lively descriptions of the Portuguese; farther on, the moving sands, according to an Arabian author, have destroyed the city of *Lamo*.*

The Mosegueyos.

Behind these maritime and civilized states are noticed the savage tribes of *Mosegueyos*, rich in cattle, who, during infancy, have their heads covered with clay in the form of a hat. Is not the name by which this nation is designated, Arabic? it would then only signify men armed with javelins.† Farther north are the *Maracates*, a people less rude, and having a good exterior. They observe the ceremony of circumcision. The girls preserve the treasure of their innocence by means of a suture, which the husband alone has a right to undo.‡

The Maracatas.

Kingdom of Magadoxa.

The accounts of the kingdom of *Magadoxa* or *Makadschou*, are more recent. A lascar or Indian sailor, named Isulf, who has resided there sixteen years, has furnished the principal parts of the following account.§ The country, watered by a large river, abounds in corn, rice,

* Aboul-Mahasen, in Et. Quatremère, l. c. p. 183.

† مصدج (mossagge) javelot. ‡ Lobo, Voyage, t. I. p. 282.

§ Narrative of the Lascar Isuf, in Ehrmann, Bibliothèque of Voyages, and Geographical Memoirs, III. 75. and seq. (in German.)

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fruits, cattle, red-haired sheep, horses, and camels. The extensive forests harbour *bears!* lions, panthers, leopards, and ostriches. The *pyon* is a bird ten feet in height. The description of an amphibious animal, denominated *bozer*, calls to mind the *ornithorynchus* of New Holland. The population consists of a mixture of white, olive-coloured and black men, who have pretty generally adopted the idiom of their masters, the Arabs. The king and great men are covered from the breast to the feet; the common people go nearly naked; the queen, by way of distinction, wears green silk, and her hair is ornamented with feathers of different colours. The king holds a court of justice in public, assisted by some counsellors. Criminals are either exposed to wild beasts, or dispatched with a club. The king is attended by a suite only during journies; at other times he has neither court nor guards, nor does any one salute him. The Mahometan religion, which prevails, appears allied to paganism; for different idols are seen both in the temples and houses. The violence exercised by the Portuguese in former times on this coast, who came for the purpose of procuring slaves, has left a deep impression, and Europeans are no longer received but with mistrust and much reserve.

City of Magadoxa.

The capital, which takes the name of the country, is a large and fine city, built at a short distance from the sea-shore. It contains the king's palace, several mosques and houses of stone painted in fresco, with terraced flat roofs. In the burial place of the royal family, near the city, the tombs are of black and white marble, each adorned with a cupola surmounting a magnificent pyramid. The urns enclosing the ashes of the kings and queens are all of gold, and surrounded by lamps of the same metal.

It is probable that the *Machidas*, mentioned by the Abyssinian histories, are no others than the *Makadschou*.

Coast of AJAN.

The coast of *Ajan* presents to the eye of the navigator, only a desolate mass of rocks and sands, where, occasionally, may be seen a wandering ostrich. In proceeding round

Cape *Guardafui*, the eastern point of Africa, the coast puts on a less barren appearance. The port of *Félis*, the isle of *Barbara*, the commercial city of *Zeila*, in a country producing fruits and corn, are little frequented by Europeans. The kingdom of Adel is the principal state of this coast, its capital is called *Auça-Gurel*, and the sovereign, like that of Yemen, assumes the title of *Iman*.* The inhabitants of this coast, called *Berberes* by the Arabian geographers, have an olive colour, long hair, and do not in the least resemble the Caffres. The horns of the cows are as large as those of the stag; the sheep also have some peculiarities; according to Hamilton,† they are whitish, with a head of a shining black colour, small ears, large body, and juicy flesh; at the end of their tail, as large as their buttocks, and from six to eight inches long, is an appendage also, about six inches in length, very like the tail of a hog. Hamilton's assertion is in some degree confirmed by Barthema,‡ who states his having there seen sheep whose tail weighed from twenty-five to twenty-six pounds; their head and neck black, the rest of the body white; others, entirely white, had a tail an ell in length, turned like a vine tendril, and the neck swelled with a kind of dewlap hanging to the ground, which they have in common with the Angora sheep, and some other varieties. M. Walckenaer has justly remarked its identity with a ram of antique marble,§ the living type of which is said to exist in the Alps; it appears to us, however, that the artist must rather have seen its model in Asia Minor. The sheep of Adel, instead of wool, is covered with hair as coarse as the bristles of a hog. The same effect is produced by the climate of Guinea and Barbary.‖ The ancients were well acquainted with these Ethiopian sheep, as they called

Kingdom of Adel.

* Ludolf, App. ad Histor. Æthiop. p. 29.

† Hamilton. Relation des Indes Orientales.

‡ Ramusis, I. p. 121, 123.

§ Fabroni, del ariete gutturato, Florence, 1792.

‖ Shaw's Travels, 241; Adanson, Hist. Natur. du Senegal, 57.

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them.* Our European breed, after having been transported to South America, has changed its wool for hair.† These facts appear to diminish, in a great degree, the importance commonly attached to slight varieties of form, in a species so subject to the influence of climate.

Aromatic vegetables.

Among the exports of the country of Adel, some Greek and Roman authors of the first and second ages, name myrrh, frankincense, cassia, and canella.‡ The testimony of the ancients, repeated by Barthema, has also been copied by Bruce. It is not improbable that the forests or groves, overspreading the interior mountains of Adel and Ajan, produce medicinal gums, odoriferous resins, and aromatic barks. We have seen, in the description of Guinea, that even the western coast of Africa produces some aromatic vegetables. We regard the great resemblance between the Flora of Africa and that of Arabia and India, as a probable result, not only of the similitude of the climates, but of the commercial communications of the inhabitants. Have not some plants from Brazil flourished in the neighbourhood of Plymouth, the seeds of which had been transported by Portuguese vessels to Lisbon, and thence to England? Are not the vegetables of Germany diffused in the same manner over the coasts of Berghen in Norway?§ It must be confessed, however, that Bruce's assertions do not afford a sufficient evidence for admitting the canella, cassia, or even the coffee-tree, into the number of vegetables of the central region of Adel and Ajan. Myrrh only is at this time carried from the ports of Abyssinia to those of Moka.‖

* Strabo, lib. XVII. p. 1177; Almel. Diod. Sicul. III. p. 8; Oppian, de Venat. II. 326. 379.

† Catesby's Natural Hist. of Carolina, preface; Brown's Natural History of Jamaica, p. 483; Sloane's Natural History of Jamaica, II. p. 323; Bancroft's Natural History of Guiana, p. 121.

‡ Galen, Dioscor. Plin. cited by Bochart, Phaleg. I. II. p. 23.

§ Notes of M. Corrêa de Serra, and of the late M. Wahl, communicated to the author.

‖ Blancard, Commerce des Indes Orient. 83.

It now remains for us to go more deeply into the interior of the continent. Unfortunately a few lines will be sufficient to include the vague traditions that have reached Europeans.

General reflections on the interior

The *Giagas* occupy to the east of Congo immense deserts. It is asserted, that these Tartars of the torrid zone, after their re-union at *Mou-Zimbes*, have appeared as devastating conquerors on the side of Quiloa. On the other hand, the name of *Mou-Jaco*, brought by Battel and Dapper very far from the north-east of Congo, appears to point out a temporary establishment of the Giagas. It appears to us that the *Zimbes*, or Mou-Zimbes, must be identical with the *Cimbebas*, wanderers to the west of the Betjouanas. Again, the *Mon-Gallas*, or *Mou-Gallas*, on the coast of Quiloa, appear to be an emigration of the Gallas bordering on Abyssinia. It is from these data that the interior of Southern Africa appears to us an extensive plateau, where wandering hordes are dispersed without control, without laws, or any regular employment. This hypothesis appears confirmed by the two according testimonies that we are about to cite.

Caravans which go that way.

The accounts of the slave merchants of Mozambique, collected by Mr. Salt, inform us, that the two nations, called the *Eevi* and *Maravi*, are situated nine hundred miles at least from the eastern coast, and consequently in the middle of the continent: these nations, composed of white men, (olive-coloured are undoubtedly meant,) are concerned in the slave trade on the western coast. Seven months are required to go from Mozambique into their country, where a great lake of fresh water is to be found. This testimony merits greater attention, as the English traveller, in reporting it, endeavours to throw out doubts on the subject.*

According to M. Morice, of the Isle of France, who concluded in 1776, in his own private name, for one hundred years, a treaty of alliance and commerce with the

* Salt, Second Voyage.

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Moors of Quiloa, a caravan of Africans every year leaves this city to go into the interior of the country on the western side of Africa, and return by the same road. They feed on the vegetables and roots found on the road,* and particularly on the tamarind. At the distance of some days' journey from Quiloa, a great lake is observed, designated as a fresh water sea; it is undoubtedly the lake Maravi. It is crossed on pieces of wood, and a halt is made on an isle found in the middle. The Africans assert that the termination of their journey is "a lake" of salt water. Vessels, similar to our own, are found here, and Europeans, to whom the slaves are sold. This account has been confirmed to M. Morice, in all the voyages made to Quiloa, by many inhabitants who had performed the journey; and the coincidence of their reports does not admit a doubt of its truth.

From these reports, it may be presumed, that at present there are no considerable districts, even half-civilized in the southern interior of Africa. This idea is farther confirmed by what is known concerning the manners of some tribes.

Manners of the Jagas.

Immediately to the east of Congo, are the regions where are found the wandering and uncivilized tribes, called *Jagas, Giagues,* or *Schaggu,* by travellers, and who give themselves the name of *Agaghi.*† These people do not cultivate the land, and possess only such cattle as they take in war: they invade the fertile countries of their neighbours, consume the produce, and, after having laid every thing waste, search after other booty. The Giagas devour their prisoners; they rub their generalissimo with human fat; he also wears a belt of ostrich eggs, and a sort of copper ring in the nose and ears. The women of the Giagas bury their children alive; the nation continues its existence only by rearing the children of neighbouring nations, torn from their parents at twelve years of age. The generalissimo, during the great sacrifices, kills with his own

* Cossigny, Moyens d'améliorer les Colonies, t. III. p. 246. 250. 269.

† Lopez, l. c. p. 77.; Battel, l. c. 974.; Carli, Voyage au Congo.

hand human victims. It is asserted that, at a certain fête, this chief orders a furious and hungry lion to be let loose in the middle of his subjects. The Jagas, far from avoiding it, consider it an honour to be killed by his murderous teeth. Old men, and the sick, are abandoned without pity. The dead are buried in vaulted tombs, dressed in their richest clothes, and have, as companions, two of their wives, who are buried alive. The Giagas, who have no horses, fight on foot with great intrepidity; they entrench their camps with diligence. This hideous nation has had its Alexander and its Semiramis. Under the command of *Zimbo*, they overran the interior of Southern Africa, and came down to lay waste Quiloa and besiege Mozambique. On its arrival before Melinda, the army of Zimbo suffered a total defeat, which was followed by the dissolution of his empire; but *Temba-Ndamba*, youngest daughter of one of his generals, endeavoured by her laws or *quixilles* to support the power of the nation. With a view of enforcing submission to her inhuman commands, she seized her young son, threw him into a mortar, broke and pounded him, and then extracted from his wretched remains an ointment, of which she applied to her body some drops on every day of battle. The Jagas have preserved this ointment; and their chiefs, when anointed with it, consider themselves invincible.

Heroes and heroines.

The *Bororos*, to the north of Monomotapa, are a less uncivilized people. Those who inhabit the sides of the lake Maravi, and who have considerable cities, are subjects of the empire of Bororos. Among the names of these tribes, those of *Massi* and *Ruengas* are the most remarkable: the one recalls the ancient Massyli or Massasylians; the other appears identical with *Dar Runga*, situated to the south of Darfour, since this last people use an idiom quite different to that of its neighbours, and appears therefore to be a colony, from a great distance.

The Bororos.

The name of *Mono-Emugi*, or, according to a more authentic orthography, *Mou Nimigi*, designates an empire or rather an oasis to the north of the lake Maravi. It is said to

Mono-Emugi.

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be populous, mountainous, and rich in gold mines.* These mines are found in the province of *Goragua;* it is also known, from M. Seetzen, that in the Dar-Bergon, a dialect is known, called the *Gourangon,* which appears to indicate a province of the same name. The sovereign of Mou-Nimigi has the title of *aceque,* which is like the word *amazeagh,* lord. Thus some scattered rays every where show a connexion between the nations of the southern interior, and those of Atlas and Nigritia. The *Mou-Nimigians* are said to be white, undoubtedly only as compared to negroes.

Gingiro.

Only one part of this interior region has been visited by Europeans; it is the small state of *Gingiro.* Some particulars concerning it are known, furnished by the Jesuit Anton-Fernandez, who attempted, in 1613, to pass from Abyssinia to Melinda, with an embassy, designed for King Philip the second of Spain.† This country is situated on the banks of Zebee, that has its source in *Boscham,* a district of the kingdom of Narea,‡ and opens for itself a passage with force across the mountains, dividing the two countries.

River Zebee.

This river, which moves along a greater volume of water than the Nile, after having nearly surrounded Gingiro, which becomes in this manner a sort of peninsula, pursues its course, without intermission, to the sea, into which it empties itself near Melinda. To cross it in their country, the Gingirians kill a cow. They enclose the baggage in the skin, and fill it with air by blowing into it with force. They then fasten to it two poles, in the form of shafts, hang upon each side by pairs, to keep the machine balanced, which a good swimmer, placed at the head, draws by means of a rope, while two others push it on from be-

* Jean dos Santos, la Haute-Ethiopie, liv. III. ch. 1.

† See Tellez, Historia general de Ethiopia a alta Coimbra, 1660, in folio, p. 312. 329.

‡ "The Zebee is probably the *Wadi Borcha,* which, according to Makrizi, constitutes the frontier of Abyssinia." Vater Ethnographisch. Archiv. tom. I. 242.

hind. Their colour is of a less deep black than that of the negroes. Their features are as fine and regular as the Abyssinians and Europeans. The whole nation are slaves; every thing is the absolute property of the king. When he wishes to obtain any thing valuable brought by the merchants, he gives them in exchange the number of slaves required. For this purpose, he uniformly orders as many sons and daughters of the inhabitants as he wishes to be taken away. It is a right of the throne, consecrated by time; and woe to the person who is suspected to disapprove in the least of this barbarity, he will be immediately put to death. At his audience of leave, the king offered Father Anton Fernandez the daughter of one of the first families of the kingdom as a slave, and on his refusal, gave him a male slave and a mule. The crown is hereditary in the same family, but not in the order of primogeniture. The successor is appointed by force, at the peril of the electors' lives, who pass for great sorcerers, and appear to be a tribe of priests. After inauguration, the new king orders all the favourites of his predecessor to appear before him, and orders them to be sent after their beloved master into the other world. The house of the dead king is burnt, with every thing contained in it. The same is done after the death of an individual; even the trees and vegetables found in the neighbourhood are burnt, lest death, habituated to this spot, should be tempted to renew his operations. Before felling a tree, chosen to make the pillar intended as a support to the throne in the king's new dwelling, they cut off the head of the first man they meet belonging to a certain family of the kingdom, which, from that circumstance, is exempt from all other expense, and many envy this honour. When the king goes to be installed in his palace, one or two other men of the same privileged family, according to the number of gates, are killed, that the threshold and posts may be dyed with their blood. On the day of his assuming the reins of government, his first act is giving orders for discovering throughout the whole of his kingdom all the men and wo-

Laws and singular customs.

BOOK LXXII.

men who are affected with scald-head, in order to prevent the propagation of the disease, which might terminate in affecting his majesty. The whole are cured by being sent beyond the Zebec, where death awaits them all.

Laughable etiquette.

The king is seated on his throne, which is like a balloon, fixed in the manner of a cage at the top of the house, dressed in a robe of white silk of Indian fabric. Father Anton Fernandez says that *gingiro* means a monkey, and that the attitudes and grimaces of the king in his cage very much resemble this animal, adding, that, similar to what monkeys do, the king, wounded in battle, is immediately killed, by those who surround him, or in default of that by his relations, that he may not die by an enemy's hand. He is looked upon as a divine being, rival to the sun and his devouring influence. He goes out only in the morning, at break of day. If the sun has risen before him, he continues in the interior of the house the whole day, and neither goes up into his cage, nor transacts any business; for, say the Gingirians, two suns cannot shine at the same time, and when the other has taken the lead, the dignity of the king would be compromised, if he so far humbled himself as to follow.

After death, the body of the king, dressed in the richest stuffs, and enclosed in the skin of a calf, is drawn along the fields to the burial place of the sovereigns, and deposited in a ditch left open: earth is not considered worthy of covering the remains of a rival of the sun, who can only have the tent of heaven as a mausoleum. The body is inundated with the blood of a great number of cows killed at the edge of the tomb; and afterwards, one is killed every day, until the death of the king then reigning; the blood flows into the tomb, and the flesh is the property of the priests who perform the sacrifice.

Among other ceremonies of the inauguration, too long for description, the new king is obliged to crush between his teeth a certain worm brought to him, and which is supposed to have come from the nose of his predecessor.

Such are the uncivilized and extravagant manners of the population of Central Africa. They afford little hope of interesting discoveries for history; neither, however, can it be supposed that a small number of men, well armed, would experience many obstacles in traversing these barbarous kingdoms.

# BOOK LXXIII.

## AFRICA.

*Continuation of the Description of Africa.—The Eastern African Islands—Socotora, Madagascar.*

BOOK LXXIII.

Socotora.

Productions.

Origin of the inhabitants.

On quitting the continent of Africa at its eastern point, the Island of Socotora immediately comes into view; its soil is dry, strong, and almost destitute of water and vegetation: the dust of the shore is carried by the wind even to the summit of the central chain of mountains. Nevertheless, in the sheltered valleys, the best aloes, as well as a great quantity of dates, are produced. It abounds in goats and poultry, but there are very few oxen. Besides the *mosunbrun*, or gum extracted from the aloe, cinnabar and dragon's blood are exported from the island.* George Andersen, an unenlightened traveller, mentions his having there seen the cassowary. Amber is thrown up from the sea. Coral is very common, and the houses of *Tamarida*, the principal city, are constructed with it. The island has no perfectly secure harbour. It is governed by a sheik, who is subject to the Iman of Muscat or Arabia. The population of this island might furnish a subject for lengthened discussions. Philostorges, Edrisi, and Hamdoullah, speak of a colony sent hither by Alexander the Great. During the time of Philostorges, the colonists spoke the Syriac language. Marco Polo assigns an archbishop to the Christians of Socotora. The Portuguese found there some

* Voyage to Socotora, Annal. des Voyages, t. X. p. 143.

Monophysite Christians, whose prayer-book appeared to be written in the Chaldean language. Again, in 1593, there was a Jacobite bishop in the island;* but the sect of Nestorians also had followers under a separate bishop.† Thomas Roe, among modern travellers, gives the most particular details of the inhabitants, and divides them into four classes—the Arabians, rulers of the country; their Mussulman subjects, or slaves; the *Bediognes*, ancient inhabitants confined to the mountains, who profess the doctrine of the Jacobite Christians; and lastly, a savage tribe, who live in the woods, without either clothes or houses. Its real inhabitants appear to be ignorant of the use of the musket, but, in commercial and other interested transactions, appear to partake of the vices of civilized nations.

This island, which even in periods of antiquity served as a station for merchants, might even now become an important one, to any nation wishing to explore Arabia and Eastern Africa. Yet, since the sixteenth century, it has continued to be disregarded by Europeans.

Almirante Islands.

At the distance of three hundred marine leagues south of Socotora, are a great number of small archipelagos, discovered by the Portuguese, which, even at this period, are not well defined. On the charts prior to the *Oriental Neptune* of M. d'Apres de Mannevillette, the general name of *Almirante Islands* comprehended all those small islands situated between the 4th and 6th degrees of south latitude, and of longitude from 50th to 54th degrees E. of Paris. Within forty years, many French navigators have made more observations, and have changed their nomenclature; they have applied the name of *Almirante* to the more western group, composed of thirteen flat islands, furnished with fresh water, abounding in cocoa trees, and tortoises, often readily taken by the hand of travellers. A more eastern

* Assemanni, Biblioth. Orient. II. 456.

† Croze, Histoire du Christianisme des Indes, p. 39. Asseman, III. 602—730.

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group has got the name of the *Seychelle Islands*. The largest, the isle of *Mahe*, is remarkable on account of the establishment formed there by the French, wherein they cultivated with success the nutmeg and clove trees. An excellent port renders this island important to navigation; the English on this account have been anxious to have it ceded to them. It was to this spot that Napoleon, when first consul, exiled some turbulent friends of liberty, falsely accused as accomplices with the contrivers of the infernal machine. A quarrel with the inhabitants, probably on the subject of politics, was the cause of these unfortunate persons being again exiled. Some of them foundered on the Comora Islands and were lost, others gained the African continent, where they probably suffered a slower and more painful death; at last, destiny also conveyed to an African island the man by whose orders so many victims had been exiled to the centre of the Seychelle islands.

The Seychelle Islands. Mahe.

Isle of Palms.

The *Isle of Palms*, in this archipelago, is distinguished by a peculiar production, a species of palm, producing a fruit called the *Maldivia nut*, or *Coco de mer*. In this fruit there is nothing particular, except its form, which presents an appearance of two thighs. The stone, like that of the cocoa, has a bitter and astringent taste.* As the tree grows near the sea, the nuts, when they fall off, drop into the water, and are carried by the current as far as the Maldives islands, whence they are carried to India. Very singular medical virtues were formerly ascribed to its fruit; it was sold at a very high price. The Emperor Rodolphus the Second, could not procure one at the price of 4000 florins. The learned formed different hypothesis on the origin of this nut, and Rumphius considered it the production of a sub-marine tree. The palm tree producing it has only been found in this island; but as the sea carries it as far as Sumatra and Java on one side,† and

Maldivia nut, or *coco de mer*.

* Sonnerat, Voyage à la Nouvelle-Guinée, p. 4.

† Marsden's Sumatra, p. 17. 1rst edition; Rumph. Herbar. Amboinense.

Zanguebar on the other,* it probably grows in many other islands of the Indian ocean. The French and English having in a short time diffused a great many of them through India, this fruit lost its mysterious fame. It has, however, been found profitable to cultivate it in the Isle of France.

Small Islands.

Many small islands little known, among which are the *Seven Brothers*, *Diego Garcia*, *Adu* and *Candu*, reach from the east of the Seychelles, to the Maldives, and even beyond the meridian of the Isle of Ceylon, in the direction of Sumatra. They are all inhabited. To the south-east of the Seychelles Islands, are also observed many small islands and extensive rocks uniting this archipelago to Madagascar and Africa. Thus, that part of the Indian ocean that extends from the coast of Zanguebar to that of Malabar, and from Arabia to the Seychelles and Maldives, forms a kind of separate sea, or, if it may be so called, a mediterranean sea.

Comora Isles.

The usual entry to this sea is the *Channel of Mozambique*, between Madagascar and Africa. To the north of this channel, interspersed with shoals and rocks, is the archipelago of the *Comora isles*. They are four in number. That of *Anjouan*, or *Joanna*, properly *Hinzouan*, has a great advantage over the others in its commodious roads and watering places of easy access. It has a very picturesque appearance; mountains, shaded with trees and fine verdure, varied by glens and intersected with deep valleys, majestically raise their heads one above another to a height of five or six hundred toises, and terminate by a peak more lofty, covered with eternal vegetation. The isle appears to have undergone the action of a considerable volcano; traces of the violence of fire are every where to be met with. It may contain about six or seven thousand inhabitants. The bay of *Machadou*, the usual place of disembarkment for European vessels, is on the north side. The city is about half a league from the anchorage, is surrounded

Appearance of Hinzouan.

* Lobo, Voyage to Abyssinia, I. p. 53.

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by walls fifteen feet high, and flanked by square turrets.* The city of *Johanna*, situated in a handsome bay in the eastern part of the isle, was destroyed by the Malgaches in 1790.

The Great Comora.

*Angazija*, or great *Comora*, situated twenty-five leagues to the north-west of Anjouan, is a vast assemblage of mountains, the different groups of which have their bases very near the sea-coast, and all re-unite in a common summit, of from twelve to thirteen hundred toises in height. It has no road, but many villages.

*Mouhilly*, or *Malale*, five leagues west-south-west of Anjouan, is encompassed with a chain of rocky shelves. It has two small towns.

The isle of *Mayotte*, the smallest of the four, seven leagues south-south-west of Hinzouan, affords only one bad anchorage. Its population is reduced to twelve or fifteen hundred individuals.

Climate.

Productions.

Situated under a fine sky, the Comora isles enjoy a very healthy climate. The champaign country every where exhibits the appearance of a luxurious vegetation. At Hinzouan, every defile is a garden watered by a limpid stream. The summit of each eminence is covered with wood, its foot is shaded by groves of cocoa-trees, tufts of bananas, mangoes, orange and lemon trees, that intersect fields of potatoes and yams. The Indian purging nut, the guiava, the tamarind, and other trees less known, adorn the sides of the hills; wild indigo and the sugar cane are abundant.

The principal domestic animals are the goat and zebra. In the fields are found pintados and quails, as well as several species of turtle-doves: among these is one very beautiful; its plumage is ash-grey, shaded with blue, green and white; its neck and legs are extremely long, its bill

* Annales des Voyages, t. XIII. p. 136. (Essai sur les Comores, par Capmartin et Epidar. Colin.) Notice on Hinzouan, by Sir William Jones, in the Asiatic Researches. t. II.

is yellow and much pointed. The brown maki appears to be the only inhabitant of the forests.

Numerous flocks of a species of hawk fly near the surface of the sea. This bird, in its tail and plumage, resembles the French hawk; it is so far peculiar as to live only near the coast, feeds only on fish, and yet is not possessed of any of the characters that distinguish aquatic birds; its feet are not even half-webbed. The waters of* this archipelago are not very well supplied with fish.

In the Comora isles none of those troublesome insects are found that desolate India, the coast of Africa, and the island of Madagascar; but the fields swarm with small mice.

Inhabitants—Their origin.

The population is composed of negroes intermixed with Arabs, who, at the period of their numerous emigrations about the twelfth century, established themselves in these islands as well as on the coasts of Africa and at Madagascar.

Language.

Large lips and prominent cheek-bones designate the lower classes of the blacks of Mozambique; the sultan and nobles have retained the fine and expressive countenance of their Arabian ancestors; large eyes, and aquiline nose, and a well-formed mouth, are features common to them all, and among them are observed heads of a striking character. The common idiom is a mixture of Arabic and of the language of Zanguebar.†

Character and Manners.

The Comorans are, in general, mild, honest, hospitable, very affable, and have already attained a degree of civilization not to be found in the inhabitants of that part of the continent, or of the great island to which they are neighbours. They have much politeness in their manners, good sense, cultivated understanding, and a certain poetic

* Annales des Voyages, t. XIII. p. 141.

† Grosse's Voyage to India, 43. (Germ.) Bruns, in his Africa, conjectures that Carmouah, in Edrisi, is Comora; and that in place of *Raneh*, the reading is *Zaneh*; that is to say, *Zuaneh*, one of the names given to the island of Hinzouan.

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turn, that imparts to their conversation an eastern grace. Yet although many among them can read and write, they keep no register either of public or private occurrences, and, whenever disputes arise, the truth of the facts, and of their date, are decided by the oldest persons among them. Europeans shipwrecked on these isles have always experienced the most generous treatment. Some Arabs engage in agriculture, and possess large estates in the interior of the island. Others are employed in the mechanical arts, weaving, working in gold, &c. Their skill in working is as wonderful as the badness of the tools which they make use of. Others apply themselves to navigation, and undertake voyages as far as Bombay and Surat. The natives, however, are generally very bad soldiers, cowardly and pusillanimous. The Madecasses frequently make descents on these isles, carry off cattle, and reduce men, women, and children to slavery.

Houses.

Their houses are simple and even miserable. The women's apartments are separated from the body of the house by a small inner court, inaccessible to strangers. The only appearance of luxury among them is the immoderate use of musk, the smell of which completely infects the houses; they have also the eastern custom of tinging their nails of an orange colour, extracted from *henna*, so much celebrated by the poets of the east. There is nothing remarkable in the dress of the men. The dress of a woman of rank, whom M. Collin, of the Isle of France, saw on the terrace of one of the houses, appeared very similar to that of the Indians on the coast of Malabar. She wore several necklaces and bracelets of coral, long ear-rings, and a ring passed through the cartilage of the nose; her hair was covered with ornaments. She appeared handsome, but her colour was very brown.

Religion.

Mahometanism is the religion of the country, but the common people worship Fetiches, as well as attend the mosques.

Political state.

The sway which the sultan of Anjouan exercised formerly over the Comora Isles, has ceased, on account of the

weakness to which the state has been reduced, by the wars waged by the Madecasses since the time of Beniowsky. The nobles have a share in the government, are engaged in commerce, and are the purveyors to European vessels. Little more is known of the constitution and laws of this country. Theft is punished by the loss of a hand, and a second offence by that of the other hand.*

We shall pass on, in a summary way, to the account of one of the largest islands of the world, and of a country more interesting from the variety of curious objects it presents, than from its extent, and from the importance it might possess in the hands of an active nation. The island of *Madagascar*, the indigenous name of which is asserted to be *Madecasse*, can claim its share among the traditions handed down to the Greeks and Romans, concerning the immense Taprobane, which, according to the accounts of the natives, was extended so far to the south, that neither the constellation of the Bear nor Pleïades, were visible, and "the sun appeared to rise from the left." These particulars, as well as its dimensions, and the great lake situated in the centre of the island, agree with Madagascar, while the latitudes marked by Ptolemy apply to Sumatra, and all the other circumstances lead us to Ceylon. In the island *Phebol*, so named in a writing attributed to Aristotle, may be recognized the Arabic name of *Phambalou*, given to this island. The Arabians probably visited it in their earliest voyages to India, and long before the time of Mahomet. The first certain idea of it was transmitted to us by Marco-Polo, the Portuguese, who discovered it in 1506, under the command of Lorenzo Almeida, and gave it the name of *Saint-Laurent;* the French called it *Dauphine.* Madagascar. Its discovery.

This island is more than 340 leagues in length, and in breadth, in some places, 120, giving it 28,000 square leagues of surface.† Although almost wholly comprised within the torrid zone, it affords, on account of the eleva- Extent.

* Annales des Voyages, tom. XIII. p. 163.

† Map of Madagascar, in the Annales des Voyages, t. XL.

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tion of its soils, the most agreeable variety of the seasons, and enjoys in some degree all the advantages of temperate climates. A double chain of mountains, from twelve to eighteen hundred toises high, traverses it from north to south, enclosing, in all probability, a sort of central plateau, and separating the two maritime parts almost equally, giving rise to several rivers containing fish, and subject to periodical inundations. The most considerable are the *Murundava*, on the western side, the *Mananzari* and *Manangara* on the eastern. The *Andevourante* is navigable for canoes to the distance of thirty-five leagues. The *Manguru*, one of the finest, rises from the lake *Antsianaxe*, twenty-five leagues in circumference. Four other lakes, *Rassoi-Be*, *Rassoi-Massaïe*, *Irangue*, and *Nossi-Be*, extend along the eastern side, communicating with each other; the latter, in particular, would make an excellent harbour, if the tongue of land separating it from the sea could be cut. The sea, however, it might be feared, would soon form another impediment. These stagnant lakes render the climate unhealthy.

Mountains.

Rivers.

Many bays and roads, in different parts, upon the same coast, have often attracted the attention of the French government, since the time of Henry IV. who first entertained the design of occupying the south-east part, by erecting in the small bay *Dauphine* the fort Dauphin, at present in ruins. During the last century Cossigny, and after him Beniowsky, have attempted to form establishments to the north-east of the island, in the fine bay of *Antongil*, inclosing port Choiseul. *Sainte-Luce* bay, to the north of Dauphine bay, was again explored in 1787 by M. Lislet Geoffroy.* Foulpoint and Tamatava, situated nearly in the centre of the coast, has always been frequented by the French, who thence obtained many articles of the first necessity, for the use of their colonies in the Isle of France and of Bourbon. English ships generally put into *Saint-Augustin* bay on the western coast. *Louques* harbour,

Bays and roads.

* Annales des Voyages, t. II. p. 40.

between the bay of Antongil and Cape Ambre, is neglected; it is, however, considered good, and capable of receiving whole fleets.

Importance of this island.

Upon the whole, the situation of Madagascar at the entrance of the Indian Ocean, and opposite the south-east coast of Africa; its fertility, progressive elevation, and the varied nature of its soil; the different modifications of the air which, in an extent of fourteen degrees from north to south, is favourable to the cultivation of all vegetables peculiar to hot and temperate climates; in a word, every thing tends to make this island one of the most important in the world, in regard to colonization and commerce.* Its possession is become still more important since the loss of the Isle of France, which, on the other hand, would never have answered for a great marine establishment, indispensable to ever power wishing to establish itself in India on an advantageous and firm footing. Moreover, Madagascar abounds in convenient anchorages, in timber, and all kinds of provisions.

Minerals.

This fine island is so rich in productions, that a long time would be required to become acquainted with them all. It is strewed with rock-crystal; pieces of the greatest beauty are found, even twenty feet in circumference; the sands of this island, the remains only of this rock, would make very white glass; granite, very fine black agates, and many other less precious stones are also found. The mountains contain tin and lead, but particularly iron, mines of which were formerly worked by the natives. There appears also to be copper, pale gold, and other metals.† In the western part, banks of mineral salt are also found.

Vegetables.

The whole shore is rich in wood. The *ravinale* grows in the marshes, and along the rivulets: it resembles the

* Annales de Voyage, t. XI. p. 5. Lescalier, Mém. de l'Institut, Sciences Mor. et Pol. IV. 2. Bory de Saint-Vincent, III. 271. et suiv. Tombe, I. 91. et suiv. Cossigny, I. 233. et suiv. Blancard, XXIV. introduction.

† Annales des Voyages, II. 38.; XI. 12. etc. etc.

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palm-tree in its trunk, and the banana in its leaves. These provide the Madecasses with napkins, table-cloths, dishes, plates, and spoons; if cut into, when they first appear, a water fit to drink is procured: the wood is used for the building of houses. In the fields and forests are found many trees and shrubs, useful both in the arts and for the purposes of life: such are the *hazame*, a tree of the shape of a poplar, the fruit of which affords the resin *tacamahaca*;* the *tanoma*, another resinous tree; the *sagou* tree, producing the alimentary and pectoral substance called *sagou*, the leaves of which are used to manufacture stuffs in high repute; the pyramidal *badam* tree; the aromatic *bachi-bachi*; the *malao-manghit*, producing a nutmeg;

Aromatics.

the *rharha-horac*, two species of *coffee-tree*; the *ravine-sara*, or clove canella, a valuable tree, the nuts and leaves of which have an exquisite perfume; an essence and oil is procured from it, more esteemed than that of the clove; the *voaé*, or *voaëne* shrub, affording elastic gum; many varieties of the cotton-tree, particularly that known as the largest species; the *malgache* indigo plant, in sandy situations; *mimosas*, among others the mimosa-lebbek, called *black-wood*; it yields a sort of gum copal, the greater part of which is lost under the trees. Among the plants are the ginger, pepper, the curcuma, or Indian saffron, tobacco, in high estimation, rice, and yams of several sorts; the *sanga-fanga*, which has a great analogy with the papyrus of the ancients. This country also furnishes some costly woods, such as sandal, black and white ebony, green and white spotted. The vine flourishes here; and the sugar-cane grows spontaneously. M. Cossigny† gives a detailed list of more than one hundred indigenous vegetables of Madagascar, that merit being transplanted into the other French colonies; and M. Milbert describes one hundred

Valuable woods.

* Milbert, Voyage à l'Ile-de-France, t. II. p. 125 et 131. Annales des Voyages, I. 53.

† Cossigny, Moyen d'améliorer les Colonies, III. 123.

and sixty-seven brought by M. Rochon to the Isle of France, in 1768.

Animals.

The animal kingdom, as in all the islands, offers less variety. The elephant and lion are unknown, but the *antamba* appears to be a species of leopard. The *farassa* resembles the jackal. The oxen of Madagascar are all zebus, or oxen with bunches of fat; some weigh from seven to eight hundred pounds. Some are entirely without horns; others have horns attached only to the skin, moveable and hanging. This last species, called in question by ignorant scepticism, has been observed by Flaccourt* and Bucquoy.†

Remarks on oxen with moveable horns.

It is again found, according to other testimonies, in the kingdom of Siam,‡ and in Paraguay.§ Many Greek and Roman writers have described them in the clearest manner, so that this kind of ox either must have lived formerly in those countries known to the ancients, or must have been brought thither from Madagascar or Siam.‖ The simultaneous existence of this animal in our island, and in the Indo-Chinese countries, may be considered as an additional proof of the emigration of the Malays to Madagascar. The other remarkable animals are wild asses, with enormous ears; wild boars, said to have horns; goats, extremely fruitful; sheep, with large tails; the *sandree*, species of hedgehog, proper for eating; the great bat,

* Flaccourt, Histoire de Madegascar, p. 151. "Cattle which have horns pendant, and merely attached to the skin of the head."

† Bucquoy, p. 104.

‡ Vincent Leblanc, Voyage, etc. edition de Bergeron, t. I. p. 121. and 210. "Horns attached to the skin, and not to the top of the head, having their motion like the ears."

§ Fischer, Spanische Miscellan. p. 86. (Berlin, 1803.)

‖ Arist. Histor. anim. t. III. 9, p. 324. edit. Scalig. "In Phrygia, and other parts, are oxen which move their horns like ears." Oppian, Cyneget, II. 90—98. He observes, that they have bunches of fat: Βαδεῖαι δ' αὐχενι σαγῆες. Antigon. Caryts. Hist. mirab. cap. 81. p. 129. Agatharch. ap. Phot. p. 1363. Diod. Sic. Biblioth. hist. t. III. 35. p. 201. Plin. Hist. mundi, VIII. 21, (in Ethiopia); XI. 37. (in Phrygia). Ælian. Solin. etc. etc. Beckmann, (Litt. des Voyages, I. 566.) conjectures, according to a verse of Claudian, that the Apis, or sacred ox of Egypt, was of this variety.

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whose flesh is very delicate; the *maki* and *ai*, an animal only found in this island. Flaccourt adds to these, "the *brek*, or the one-horned goat." The forests harbour fowls, pintados, pheasants, wood-pigeons, geese, ducks, and parrots. Flaccourt enumerates more than sixty birds little known. Locusts sometimes darken the air, and are considered dainty food by the natives. Four species of silk-worm are found here, that suspend their cords to the trees. The waters of Madagascar swarm with fish, and the flat shore abounds in different sorts of crustaceous animals and shells, which attract the passenger's attention. Sitting under a lemon-tree near the sea-shore, during the reflux, Mandelsloh made an excellent meal by seasoning the oysters taken at his feet with the juice of lemons that hung over his head. The whales that frequent this part of the sea during the rainy season, are a particular species:* it is that of the Indian ocean, found as far as the coast of Brazil. Important fisheries might be here established.† Shark fishing might also be profitable.‡

Chorography.

We shall now describe, principally in the manner of the Memoirs published in our *Annales des Voyages*, the different provinces or countries into which this island is divided, beginning with the eastern coast, then passing to the districts of the centre, and terminating with the western coast.

The Antavarts.

The country of the *Antavarts*, that is to say, "People of Thunder," because storms generally proceed from their coast, reaches from Cape Ambre to within a few leagues of Foulpoint, and comprehends the great bays of Vohemare and Antongil, as well as Isle St. Mary, called in the country, *Nossi-Ibrahim*. It is well cultivated, and particularly abounding in rice, of which 3,000,000 pounds might be exported every year. The Antavarts manufacture very fine cotton cloths, much esteemed in commerce, and make frequent excursions to the Comora Islands, to

* Cossigny, t. III. p. 171. et suiv.

† Conquest of Bourbon, p. 32. London, 1811. ‡ Cossigny, III. 186.

seize slaves, since Beniowsky shewed them the way. They understand the use of fire arms, and are formidable enemies.* Some have considered them descendants of the Jews. They certainly preserve traditions concerning Noah, Abraham, or Ibrahim, Moses, and David; practise circumcision; celebrate the Sabbath; and sacrifice animals.

The Bestimessaras.

The province of *Bestimessaras*, or *Betsimicarracs*, or united people, formed by the union of the *Zaphi-Dzabais*, the *Zaphi-Dieunisois*, the *Antantsicanes*, the *Anterouibais*, and others, is the most frequented by Europeans. They buy here a great quantity of rice, and much cattle. There are two excellent roads, Foulpoint, where the French had an establishment, and Tamatave, which perhaps is a more advantageous one. The Bestimessaras, governed by *Malates*, or chiefs of white extraction, who tyrannize over them, are the handsomest men in Madagascar, but dissembling, drunken, cowardly, and addicted to theft. M. Chapelier,† who describes them in this unfavourable light, nevertheless adds, that they are very industrious and susceptible of civilization.

Farther on we meet with the *Betanimenes*, or people of the Red-land, otherwise Sicouas, bounded on the west by the Bezonzons, and on the south by the Antaximes; governed by the natives of the country, they enjoy great tranquillity. It is the finest, most fertile, and most populous among the provinces on the sea-coast, and its inhabitants are the most mild and most sociable of the whole island. It is generally traversed to visit the interior, because it is more clear of wood than the others. The traveller every where finds a good reception, and his eye is continually delighted by a variety of agreeable situations, as far as the majestic mountains of lake Nossivée and Besoure, which terminate the landscape. The land owes its fertility partly to the river Andevourante, named after the capital of the Betanimenes, which is also the largest town of Madagascar. It can furnish 10,000 armed men.

* Fressanges, dans les Annales des Voyages, t. II. p. 12.

† Ibidem, XIV. t. II. 59.

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The Antaximes, or people of the south, are represented as poor, uncivilized brigands,* without industry or commerce. They ever neglect the cultivation of their land, watered by the two finest rivers of Madagascar, the Mangourou, and the Mananzari. The air is much more healthy than in the northern part, but there is no good harbour, so that Europeans avoid this inhospitable coast.

The islanders of this part are of a very black colour, with frizzled hair. They use a shield, which is not the case with the other Malgaches.

The Antambasses.

The country of the *Antambasses* reaches to the south-eastern extremity of the island, from the Bay of Saint Lucia, as far as the extremity of the valley of Amboule, a distance of about twenty-five leagues, and as far from the north as the south. *Siangourih* is its capital. The men are tall, robust, always cheerful, mild, and generous, but idle to excess, and live in the greatest wretchedness. The women do not in general attain the natural height; as in other parts, they are generally ugly, and very debauched. The small creek Dauphine is on this coast.†

The valley of Amboule.

Warm chalybeate springs are found in the valley of Amboule, excellent pasturage, and fine rivers, but little wood: the mountains surrounding it are burnt up as far as a third of their height. From seven to eight hundred oxen, and from twelve to fifteen thousand weight of rice may be procured yearly.

The Antanosses, etc.

The *Antanosses* on the south, and the *Taissambes* on the west, formerly united in one nation with the Antambasses, are at this time governed by the same Arabian family which at that time was in possession of the whole southern part of Madagascar.

The Antambanivoules.

We will now pass into the interior. The *Antambanivoules*, or Ambanivoules, that is, the inhabitants of the land of bamboos, less corrupted than the people of the seashore, are considered by these as uncultivated. Shepherds

* Fresanges Annales, tom. II. p. 17.

† Lislet Geoffroy, in the Annales des Voyages, tom. II. p. 51.

and husbandmen, if they are without intercourse, they at least avoid its vices. They lead a very frugal and laborious life, and are very hospitable. They sell to their neighbours, particularly to the Bestimacaracs, who would otherwise perish of want, rice, poultry, honey and *toc*, a drink made with the fermented juice of the banana and of the sugar-cane.*

The Antsianakes.

The *Antsianakes* inhabit the district between the sources of the Manangoura, and the confines of the land of the Antavarts. They were considered robbers, because they refused admission into their territory to the white robbers, but peaceable travellers have lately visited their villages, well regulated and tolerably well built, their plantations of rice, and their mountains, whence, it appears, they obtain silver. The salubrity of the air of this country would render it particularly favourable for the residence of a European colony, who would find positions easy of defence. Indian merchants enter it from the country of the Seclaves, situated to the north-west.†

The Bezonzons.

The province of the *Bezonzons* or *Bezombsons*, comprehends fourteen villages, situated in a valley encompassed by high mountains, that divide them to the east from the Betanimenes, and towards the west from the Antancayes. The traveller is surprised, in crossing these mountains, to see at his feet well cultivated plains, watered by many streams, and to find an assemblage of men perfectly isolated, living peaceably, enjoying the pleasures of life without dreading its vicissitudes, and anxious to share them with him.

Until now, handsome, black, and well-made men only have been seen; here the features are sensibly altered, and announce a mixed people, and at the same time mark a line of distinction between the different races.

* Chapelier, Annales des Voyages, tom XIV. p. 60. Ep. Collin. ibid. 88. Fressanges, ibid. II. p. 18.

† Du Maine, ibid. XI. p. 46. and 49.

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The Antancayes.

The difference is still more strikingly marked in the *Antancayes*,* who exactly resemble the Malays in their features, in the tawny colour of their skin, their straight and rough hair, low stature, in their dress, language, and manners. Like the Malays, they consider their beauty to consist in having black teeth; they pluck out the beard, lengthen their ears by piercing them with great holes, and rub the body with suet, which makes them very dirty. They are deceitful and perfidious, like the Malays. Their chiefs are cruel and despotic, having the power of life and death over their subjects, a custom unknown in other parts of Madagascar, where the criminal is tried in a general assembly.

The *province* of *Antancaye* is a plain eighty leagues in length, fifteen in breadth, bounded on the east by the mountains of Befour, and on the west by the province of Mangourou, that washes the foot of the mountains of Ancova. This immense plain is covered with innumerable herds of cattle. A sort of red and highly nutritious rice is grown here.

The towns, placed on the top of the highest mountains, are well fortified and almost impregnable.

The country of Ancova.

The *province* of *Ancova*, bounded on the east by the Mangourou, touches at its western part the country of the queen of Bombetoc, and the province of St. Augustin bay. It is subdivided into two parts, the northern and southern, is governed by separate chiefs, who, although relations, are continually at war. This country enjoys a pure and wholesome air, but cold. It is much in want of wood, and the inhabitants are obliged to have recourse to stubble, to the dung of oxen, and to a red earth, hardened by the sun, to bake their food, and warm themselves. The population is prodigious; the plains and tops of mountains are covered with villages. *Tanane-Arrivou*, the capital of the most powerful of the two chiefs, may contain

* Fressanges, Annales des Voyages, t. II. p. 20.

twenty-five thousand inhabitants; it is situated on a very high mountain, and has the appearance only of a labyrinth surrounded by ditches.*

The Hovas, or Ambolans.

The inhabitants of *Ancova*, called *Hovas*, or *Ambolans*, are very unhappy under their tyrants. Letters however, from the Isle of France, inform us that their king has lately ceded all the territory to the north of his kingdom, as far as the bay of Louquez. They have a few oxen, but possess a great many sheep with large tails; rice, manioc, potatoes pistachios, yams, beans, and the vine, are the principal vegetables cultivated for their subsistence. They resemble much the Antancayes; but they are whiter, tall and well made, although with somewhat slender bodies. Their hair is soft and long, nose aquiline, and the lips small, like those of the Indians.†

Their proficiency in the arts.

Of all the tribes dispersed over the surface of Madagascar, that of the Hovas is the only one that comes near to us in their knowledge of the arts. They extract from the bowels of the earth many kinds of iron and lead ore; this last mineral is used to give a varnish to their earthen ware, each piece of which is usually made in the form of a jug more or less large, mounted on a pedestal. They work in metal as well as the Europeans, and imitate with great care most of the objects of foreign manufacture shewn to them. I have seen, says M. Chapelier, knives, scales, a spring movement, the polish of which surprised me not less than the paints these islanders had taken to imitate their models. They imitate piastres so well that many merchants have been deceived by them. They understand making many fine and very durable stuffs: it is they who furnish those webs of calico so highly valued, which are sold in Madagascar at a slave a-piece. It is a stuff of a blue ground, on the sides of which are small bits of tin, very artfully worked, so as to be continuous and closely united into one with the woof, which is always of silk and

* Chapelier, Annales des Voyages, t. XIV, p. 61. et suiv.

† Idem, Fressanges, ibid. II. p. 22.—24.

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cotton. In the middle of this tissue are many fiue flowers, embossed with tin, which produce a brilliant effect. Their stuffs in general are very close and strong, an advantage not possessed by those brought to them from Europe; in consequence, the inhabitants for the most part are not anxious to acquire the latter. In other respects they are deceitful, treacherous, and cunning; even selling each other. A European,* while treating for slaves in this province, after having bought a certain number from an accredited merchant, was much astonished on the following day to see another who wished to sell him one that formed part of his former purchase.

The Andrantsayes.

The Hovas also make slaves of the Andrantsayes, a tribe of shepherds, uncivilized, and cowardly, who join them on the south, and who are in the habit of purchasing peace by offering their enemies herds of cattle as a tribute. Every thing concurs to establish the opinion, that this is the nation of *Quimos* of which Commerson, the Abbé Rochon, and Raynal, make mention, and which they place exactly in the same spot. M. Fressanges, having had an opportunity of seeing a dwarf slave of this province, took the greatest pains to ascertain this fact. The seller told him that these deformed beings were really not very uncommon among the Andrantsayes, but all the slave merchants assured him that in no part did there exist a colony of dwarfs; nevertheless, these merchants ought to be well acquainted with Madagascar, as they traverse the island in all directions. Having inquired of the dwarf whether his father and mother were also as small as himself, he answered positively in the negative, and that it was on account of his being so small that he had been sold. M. Fressanges has not even heard the word Quimos pronounced throughout the whole of Madagascar, and when, by the sports of nature, a dwarf is born, they call it *zaza coute coute*, or man child.

* Annales des Voyages, t. II. p. 23.

We shall now take a view of the southern and western coast. After the country of the *Antanosses*, or the province *Carc-Anossi*, terminated by the rivers *Mandrerei*, three others are observed along the coast, that of *Ampatris*, the *Mahasalles*, and the *Caremboules*, neither of them well cultivated, but rich in wood and pasturage. The hogs and wild oxen appear to be masters of this country. The tree *Anadzahu* acquires a gigantic height. In the interior live the *Machicores*.

Southern coast.

That part called by navigators, the *province of the bay of Saint Augustin*, is not well known. It would appear that the coast at least, which is low and sandy, has the indigenous name of *Siveh*. The inhabitants are called *Buques*. Their king resides at *Tulcar*. Shipwrecked Europeans have experienced here the most humane attentions; their property has not only been respected, but the natives have assisted them in building their huts, and have provided them abundantly with eatables.* This last circumstance does not coincide with the account given by other travellers concerning the barrenness of the country, which, according to them, produces only tamarind trees, and some roots, the ordinary food of the natives, with the addition of the milk of their cattle.† The *Yonggelah*, which runs into Saint-Augustin's Bay, descends from mountains where gold, topazes, rubies, and other precious stones are found.

The country of the Buques.

The bay of *Mouroundava* receives a great river of the same name, which is also called *Menabe*, and in the ancient accounts *Mansiatre*. This river receives, from the north and south, many considerable streams. In the valleys, watered by these branches, are several nations known; among these the *Erindranou* are the most powerful. The *Vohits-Anghombe*, who are placed near the sources of Me-

Different nations.

* Shipwreck of the Winterton, in the Gentleman's Magazine, p. 377; April, 1794.

† Mackintosh's Voyages, etc. lett. 70.

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nabe, appear to us to be identical with the inhabitants of Ancova.

The Seclaves.

The whole coast, from Mouroundava on the south, to Ancouala on the north, belongs at present to the kingdom of the *Seclaves*, who, at least in several parts, are continued into the interior as far as the chain of central mountains. This country, made up of plains and fields, feeds a prodigious number of cattle.* The lands, generally of an indifferent nature, particularly along the coast, are traversed by regular roads, guarded by picquets of soldiers. The rivers have no fish, but the forests abound in game, and the coast is covered with banks of pearl-oysters. The government, in 1791, was under the authority of a queen, who resided at *Bombetoc*, or *Ampampetoca*, a very populous city, although built in the form of a village.

City of Mouzangaye.

*Mouzangaye*, a well regulated city, with a population of 30,000 souls, among whom are 6000 Arabs and Indians, appears to be under the sole protection of the queen. The port was frequented by vessels from Surat, which brought linen in exchange for gold dust.† There are mosques, houses for education, and workmen of every kind. The seclaves, oppressed by despotism, are less warlike than the eastern Madecasses, although they possess the same religious and moral ideas.

In the northern extremity of Madagascar, volcanoes are said to be in a state of activity, but these cantons have not yet been examined in detail.

The Madecasses.

The entire population of Madagascar amounts to one million and a half, according to those who estimate it at the lowest, and to four millions, according to those who estimate it at the highest point. It is made up of many races. Some tribes, or rather castes less numerous, are evidently of Arabic origin. The *Zaffe-Ramini* trace their descent from Imina, the mother of Mahomet. The chief

Arabian colonies.

* Du Maine, in the Annales des Voyages, t. XI. p. 29.

† Idem, XI. 26.

of this family was formerly the acknowledged sovereign of the greatest part of the island, but the direct line of these princes is extinct. The *Rhoandrians* are their nearest descendants, and born without any mixture. The *Anacandrians* and the *Ondzassis*, are the offspring of an intercourse with the natives. The olive colour of these descendants of the Arabians, accords to them the title of white, or *malate*. The *Zaffe-Ibrahim*, of whom we have already spoken, are descendants either of Jews or of Arabians, who left their country before the time of Mahomet. In the district of Matatane, a third caste, less warlike, but learned, and of a good form, came to establish themselves here at a more recent period. They are called *Kassi-Mambou*, and by the natives *Anta-Mahouri*, which, according to M. Collin, signifies inhabitants of the land of the Moors. Their colour, more allied to black, and the woolly nature of their short hair, point out the Arabic colonies of Zanguebar as their native place. All the considerable tribes, however, who constitute the great majority of the inhabitants, have either a tawny complexion and the smooth hair of the Indians, or a black skin and the frizzled hair of the Caffres. It appears that this island was peopled by very ancient emigrations both from Caffraria and Malabar, that its position is nearest to Africa, but that the periodical winds and a chain of islands connect it to Asia. The name of *Malegaches*, assumed by the ancient inhabitants, that of *Mal-Dives*, of *Male-Bar*, and others, point out this descent, which, as far as regards the Asiatic emigration, is still more completely demonstrated by the composition of the prevailing language of Madagascar.

Two ancient races.

This language affords some Arabic words, and others more nearly resembling the idioms of the Caffres; but its principal roots may be traced in the Malay, or in the dialects derived from that language, and spoken at Java, at Timor, in the Philippines, in the Marian isles, and in all the archipelagos of north and south Polynesia. The most remarkable natural objects, at least the greater

Madecasse language.

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number of them, and the days of the week, have the same names in the two languages.*

There is the same want of declensions and flexions, the same mode of uniting words, the same abundance of vowels. Notwithstanding what has been advanced by the learned continuator of the German *Mithridates*, we can affirm that the Madecasse appears intimately connected with the Malay language, and particularly with the Javanese and Timorian. In what proportion are the Caffre or Zanguebar words? Are they sufficiently numerous to induce us to consider the primitive population as an African colony, subjugated and civilized by the Malays? What influence must be attributed to the Arabs, and from what period?

* The heavens, *danghitsi*, or *langhits*, Mad.; *languit*, Marian and Philippine islands; *élandchi*, Friendly Islands. The earth, *tane*, Mad.; *tana*, Malay, Tagal. The moon, *voulau*, Mad.; *woulau*, Javan. Star, *quintané*, Mad.; *vintané*, Malay. Fire, *afe*, Mad.; *afi*, Mal.; Tagal. Isles, *nossa*, Mad.; *noussa*, Timor. Mountain, *vohits*, Mad.; *woukir*, high Javanese. Day, *anto*, or *anrou*, Mad.; *arri*, Mal.; *ao*, Friendly Islands. Father, *baba*, and *amproi*, Mad.; *bapa*, Mal.; *amai*, Tagal. Mother, *nene*, Mad.; *nene*, Mal. Son, *ana* or *zanu*, Mad.; *onax*, Mal. Man, *ouroun* and *oulouu*, Mad.; *orang*, Mal. Husband, *lake*, Mad.; *lanaug*, Jav. Woman, *vayavé*, Mad.; *vabai*, Mal. Head, *loha*, Mad.; *holo*, Javan; *olo*, Tagal. Eye, *massou*, Mad.; *matta*, Javan. Nose, *orung*, Mad; *hiroung*; Jav. Tongue, *lela*, Mal.; *leda*, Javan. Hand, *tangham*, Mad.; *taugan*, Javan. Tooth, *niffi*, Mad; *niphin*, Marian Islands. Drink, *minum*, Mad.; *minom*, Mal.

One, *isse*, or *essou*, Mad; *essa*, Timor. Two, *roua*, Mad.; *noua*, Timor. Three, *telloo* and *toullo*, Mad.; *telou*, high Javan; *tolla*, low Javan. Four, *effats*, Mad.; *opat*, Jav. Five, *limi*, Mad.; *lima*, Mal. Javan; *rima*, Polynes. Six, *enem*, Mad.; *mnam*, high Javan. Seven, *fitou*, Mad.; *itou*, Timor; *peti*, high Javan. Eight, *valou*, Mad.; *wolo*, high Javan. Nine, *sini*, Mad.; *senaw*, Timor. Ten, *poulou*, Mad.; *sapoulou*, Mal; Javan, &c. Days of the week, commencing at Monday, in Malay, *senene*, *telassa*, *robo*, *camisse*, *zouma*, *saplou*, *lahati*; in Madecasse, *sinine*, *talate*, *roubia*, *camisse*, *zouma*, *saboutsi*, *lahadi*.

This list is taken, for the Madagascar, from Flahault, Mégiser; from the Madagascar catechism; and from the MS. Notes of M. Collin, Chapelier, &c. It is founded, in respect of the Javanese and Timorian words, upon some vocabularies printed at Batavia.

These are questions which the present state of our knowledge does not allow us to solve.

Political state.

The Madecasses, or Malegaches, live for the most part in a state of unbridled liberty. The Seclaves, the Autancayes, and the Hovas, groan, however, under the yoke of a tyrannical government. Independently of these states, the Madecasse acknowledges no supreme authority except the *cabares*, or public assemblies; it is in these that public affairs are decided, and that law-suits are tried. The speeches there made often evince a natural and energetic eloquence. Among many of the tribes, hereditary classes are acknowledged, the privileges of which are not well defined. The *Voadrisi*, are the native sovereign lords, subjugated in some cantons by the Arabians. The *Lohavohits*, are lords who govern in their villages. The *Ondzoa*, constitute the people. There are besides numerous slaves. Similar to what takes place in the South Sea Islands, the right to kill certain animals, and to eat certain meats, are confined to the higher classes.

Castes.

The deplorable superstitions to which the Madecasses are subjected, are mingled with some notions respecting good and bad angels, borrowed from the Arabians. The priests, called *Ombias*, practise medicine, and sorcery; they also possess some books in the Madecasse language, written in Arabic characters. No ceremony is mentioned which can be considered as forming part of a public worship.

Priests and Sorcerers.

Circumcision is in use throughout the whole island, although the Malegaches are not acquainted with the religion of Mahomet. It is also performed with particular ceremonies, giving no indication of Arabian tradition. On the day set apart for this fête, all work ceases in the village. Parents bring, laden with a great quantity of strong liquors, as many oxen as they have children to circumcise. After having slaughtered the oxen, they place their horns on notched posts. Dances, feasts, and sham-fights, announce the opening of the ceremony. The *empananguin*, armed with the fatal knife, demands his victims. Then the sports cease, fathers hasten to present their children,

Circumcision.

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and while they amuse these innocents, the empananguin cuts off what he considers superfluous, places the strips upon a board, and applies astringent powders to stop the bleeding of the wounded part. Guns are loaded with a portion of the skin cut off, instead of ball, and a general discharge is made. The ancient custom obliged the empananguin to swallow the strips. Feasts and dancing recommence, and do not cease until there is no longer any strong liquor left. The ordeal by poison, or the *tanguin*, is one of the most atrocious superstitions of this people. The tree that furnishes the *tanguin* is very widely diffused throughout Madagascar; birds avoid its foliage, reptiles dread its shade; one species only of crab approaches it. It is the nut of the fruit, which, taken in a certain quantity, produces death in less than an hour, if the unfortunate victim is not saved by a violent evacuation; even then he is afflicted during the rest of his life with violent pains. This terrible punishment is inflicted on those whom hatred or popular jealousy accuse of having caused the death of one of their companions. It is considered a sort of *judgment of God*, to whom is remitted the decision of a criminal process. The *cabare*, or assembly of the people, is consulted before they go to this extreme; the relations and friends, both of the person dead and the person accused, superintend the ceremonies that precede and accompany the operation of the tanguin. If the accused survives (which happens in about one case in five) the accusers become his slaves.*

Sentence by poison.

* The tanguin, (*Pentandria monygynia.*) Flowers terminal and panniculed; corollæ infundibuliform, with fine oblique rosaceous petals; tube closed by five scales, furnished with a whitish down; tube very long, channelled within, villous, stamina sessile; antherae supported upon threads which adhere to the tube of the corolla, and have at their summit a projection in the form of a hook, on which the stigma is supported; the style slender, equal with the corolla, with a villous stigma at its top. Calyx with five whitish divisions pointed; the three exterior large, the two interior smaller, the footstalk long and green; each bifurcation of the panniele enveloped at its base by a concave and whitish bractea. Leaves thick, petiolated, oblong, entire, and bordered by cartilages, (MS. Note of M. Chapelier.)

The *Dine* is an imprecation, in the form of an oath, invoked upon the head of one, or several chiefs. The formula of this oath consists in these words: "I swear that I am not guilty of that of which I am accused. If I speak false, may such a chief be destroyed by thunder, or changed into *such* or *such* an animal, by the power of the Supreme Being." The accused being impeached and convicted of perjury, is condemned to slavery by the chief towards whom he directed his oath.

Singular imprecation.

A custom more worthy of human nature, is *the oath of blood*, or solemn alliance contracted between two persons, who bind themselves to perform to each other every sort of good service, and hence acquire all the rights of relationship. For the purpose of celebrating this ceremony, the principal persons of the place are assembled. The new friends wound themselves slightly in the pit of the stomach; then soak two pieces of ginger in the blood that flows, and each eats the piece moistened with the blood of the other. The person appointed to perform the ceremony, mixes in a cup some fresh water, salt water, rice, silver, and dust; it is called the witness of the oath; he dips two lances in that mixture, and, striking them with the instrument by which the wound was made, he pronounces terrible imprecations, generally couched in these terms: "Great God! master of men and of the earth, we invoke thee as a witness to the oath we have sworn; may the first who breaks it be destroyed by thunder; may the mother who conceived him be devoured by dogs!" then, driving away the evil genius, whom they always believe ready to oppose good intentions, they dart their javelins towards the four cardinal points. They call to witness the earth, the sun, and moon, and drink of a beverage prepared by the master of the ceremony, exhorting all the powers to convert it into poison for him who does not take the oath with sincerity.

Alliance of Blood.

In sailing one hundred and eighty leagues eastward from Madagascar, the *Mascarenha* isles come in view; for

The Mascarenha Isles.

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by this name must be called collectively, after the person who discovered them, the isle of *Bourbon*, or *Mascarenha*, properly so called; the *Isle of France*, called *Cerne* by the Portuguese, and Mauritius by the Dutch; the isle of *Rodrigo*, and *Cargados*, which complete this archipelago.

Isle of Bourbon. Mountains. Volcano.

The whole Isle of Bourbon seems composed of two volcanic mountains, the origin of which, says M. Bory de St. Vincent, is undoubtedly at two periods very distant from each other. In the southern part, which is the smallest, the subterranean fires still commit ravages; that of the north is much larger; the volcanic eruptions that formerly made great devastations, are now no longer in action: species of basins or little valleys, rapid rivers, hemmed in by perpendicular ramparts, little mountains thrown into these valleys, by which their course is impeded; basaltic prisms, often disposed, as in the island of Staffa, in regular columns; beds of lava in great variety; deep fissures, that indicate a general convulsion, all attest ancient and dreadful physical revolutions. The narrow flat shore, interrupted in several places, is composed only, as at Teneriffe, of basaltic pebbles or other running lavas; these stones are washed into the sea by the rains; true sands are no where to be found; what is improperly called by that name is composed of calcareous rubbish and of marine bodies thrown upon the shore by the waves, where may be seen in miniature a collection of all the lavas of the island, which the motion of the tides have reduced to very small round pieces, of a bluish slaty appearance.*

General appearance.

What is called the Windward part, comes into view on proceeding from Saint Denis by sea: that called Leeward, is considered the most luxuriant; but it is somewhat arid; springs are scarce. The former, more even, rising from the sea to the point of the isle, by an easy ascent, tempered by continual breezes, and cultivated with care, often recalls an idea of Europe, and particularly of Languedoc, while at a distance the nature of the vegetation is not dis-

* Bory de St. Vincent, Voyage aux îles d'Afrique, t. I. p. 264; II. 372; III. 147.

tinguished. Plantations of clove trees, resembling pleasure groves, immense coffee trees, and golden fields of corn, agitated by a continued waving motion, adorn this country, of which they constitute the wealth.

The place of disembarkation, from the isle of Reunion to *Saint Denis*, alone affords an access into this island; it is an open road. The mole, constructed by the orders of M. de la Bourdonnaye, has been carried away by the waves. Saint-Denis is not properly a city; it is literally a country town, the streets of which are inclosed by pallisades or walls, resembling country highways. There was a French establishment in this isle as far back as 1654. M. Poivre, author of the Voyage of a Philosopher, was governor of these islands in 1776, and introduced the cultivation of the clove with great success. They are also partly indebted to him for the bread-fruit tree, the nutmeg, and canella. The soil of the isle is, in general, excellent; but as it is composed almost entirely of one great mountain, the rains attracted by it carry along towards its base the light particles of the soil that owe their existence to animal and vegetable deposits, so that the summit of the maintain is merely a naked and desolate rock, at the same time that the land becomes better as it approaches the sea-shore. The cantons situated on the leeward coast, enjoy a climate and temperature very favourable to the perfection of the coffee-tree; but unfortunately this very effect contributes to the multiplied growth of insects that destroy the plants. Its produce is estimated at 73,200 bales, of about a quintal.

Saint-Denis.

The culture of cloves, on account of its extent, is next to that of coffee in importance; but the cultivator can never reckon upon its produce with certainty; it is very abundant one year, and very deficient another. In the present state of its culture, the produce is estimated, in an abundant year, at one million and a half of pounds.* Cotton is at present less cultivated than it was formerly, par-

Different cultures.

* Conquest of the Isle of Bourbon, in 8vo. London, 1811.

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ticularly since a disease ruined the plantations. This disease, the nature of which has not been made out, does not affect the vigour of the plant, but prevents the development of the seed, and reduces the product to a mere nullity. This inconvenience, in addition to long commercial interruption, has induced the planters to convert their lands imperceptibly into plantations of corn and coffee.

Produce in corn.

The produce of corn is about 14 millions of pounds weight. It formed the principal resource of the Isle of France, for the Isle of Bourbon does not consume more than two millions of pounds in the year. Maize and potatoes are also cultivated. Their total product is valued at 7,100,000 francs.

Errors of administration.

In the Isle of Bourbon, the divisions of land are very vaguely determined. Instead of fixing the extent by a given measure, they merely specify, that lands situated between such and such rivers or ravines, and those that are extended from the sea, as far as the declivity of the mountain, are the property of such a one. These rivers, however, which, during the rainy season, are liable to change their bed, often ruin by their inundations a considerable part of the lands, and produce, by this disorder, a considerable depreciation of the former. To appreciate the utility of an exact limit, it must be observed, that such lands as have been surveyed, and inclosed by land-marks indicating their limits, have always produced double, treble, and even four times more than they had done before this operation.

Revenue.

The revenue raised by government in this isle, arises from a capitation tax laid on the negroes, and from direct taxes upon carriages, palanquins, and horses, registers, and stamps, and from licenses for the sale of arrack.* The tax on the importation and exportation of merchandize is not productive. The whole public revenue may be estimated at 1,150,000 francs. The royal domains are of considerable extent, but in a great measure in the hands

* See the pamphlet quoted above.

of runaway or rebel negroes. There is also a considerable part on the coast, consisting of lands of very good quality. In 1811, the population amounted to nearly 80,350 inhabitants; of these 16,400 are whites, Europeans, or creoles; 3496 free negroes, and 60,454 slaves. The armed force amounts to 4493, composed of 573 troops of the line, 417 creole sharp-shooters, 900 national guards, 2300 creole militia, and 145 pieces of artillery.

Population.

The *Isle of France*, less fertile, and of less extent than that of Bourbon, is indebted to its harbours and roads for a greater commercial and military importance. It was the centre of the French navigation in the East Indies. It was the point from whence issued those indefatigable privateers, the terror of the opulent English. Conquered at length by a formidable English army, this rich and warlike island has been left in the hands of a power, which will, no doubt, appreciate the value of the public spirit and talents of this little nation.

Isle of France.

The Portuguese looked on this island in no other way than as a watering place. The Dutch, who established themselves here in 1639, understood its fertility;* having been attracted, however, to the Cape by a prospect of greater gain, the inhabitants abandoned it in 1712. It was only towards the year 1734, under the government of M. de la Bourdonnaye, that the French establishment began to be of some importance. There are two harvests annually of wheat and Indian corn; they are not, however, sufficient for its consumption. The coffee is of an excellent quality; the clove retains all its perfume; the cotton and indigo trees find many favourable spots for growth; but the fickle nature of its inhabitants, always looking out for novelty and profit, induces them to pass rapidly from one kind of culture to another.

Cultivation

There are in this island many of the smaller breed of monkeys, who do a great deal of harm to the plantations. The jacquier and the rima, another tree rather different in

* Valentyn, Ostindien, t. VIII. Kaapsche Zaaken, p. 155.

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form, are here cultivated under the name of the *bread-fruit tree*, but the true bread-fruit tree, so much celebrated by navigators, has only recently been introduced into the colony. It is still scarce, because its growth is slow.

Mountains. Pitons.

The form of this isle, according to M. Bory de St. Vincent, is an irregular oval: it is rather more than eleven leagues in its greatest length, which extends from north-east to south-west, and rather more than eight leagues in its greatest breadth, which is from east to west. The shoals render disembarkation in general dangerous. By following its different windings, its circumference is found to be about forty-five leagues. The land rises gradually from the coast. The centre of the isle is a wooded hillock of from 200 to 250 toises high. In the centre of this plateau rises a conical and very pointed mountain; its situation has given it the name of *Piton du milieu de l'île*, or Central Spike, which is 302 toises in height. Among the other mountains, that of the Black river is 424 toises high; that of *Pieter-Both* has on its conical summit a mass like a cap, which seems to threaten the surrounding country with its fall.

From the top of Pouce may be distinguished volcanic isles, that appear to form a part of a submarine crater. Between these rocks and the mountain is an extensive low level plain, where are found nothing but some fragments of lava which belonged to ancient currents; all the rest is calcareous; these are only madrepores and shells formed at the bottom of the sea.*

Cities.

Port North-west, or Port Louis (the name of the city situated at the point of debarkation,) may contain 4000 whites, or free blacks, and double that number of slaves. The houses are almost all built of wood, but elegant in their forms. The public buildings are of a very good architecture. The principal streets are planted with black-wood, a handsome tree of the genus of *mimosas*, the flower

* Bory de St. Vincent, t. I. p. 211, etc. etc. Compt Bailly, in the Voyage of Milbert, II. 92.

tufts of which, in the spring, form an agreeable contrast, by their white, yellow, and delicate rose colours, with the new and dense verdure; but this tree soon loses its leaves, and becomes loaded with dried husks.* This city is not without its scientific and literary institutions; the *Societé d'Emulation*, which is formed here, has enriched our *Annales des Voyages* with very interesting memoirs.

Picturesque beauties.

In traversing the interior, to go to *Port-Bourbon*, the second city, the road passes through a delightful country, where the dwellings of the colonists are so many temples raised to gaiety and hospitality; in a short time the traveller is immersed in humid forests, decked with mosses; he makes his way over the rapid and foaming torrent, by leaping from rock to rock; he takes his rest by the noise of cascades, by the murmur of zephyrs perfumed with the sweetest odours; he enjoys those pastoral scenes so eloquently traced by the pen of the author of Paul and Virginia, assisted by the ingenious pencil of M. Milbert. In a northern direction, the romantic *district of Pamplemousses* presents to the lovers of botany the celebrated *Jardin de l'Etat*, where the vegetable riches of the whole east flourish. These details, however, are too well known to appear in this work; we must only point out to our readers the chart of the island, by M. Hubert Brué,† as the most accurate, in which they may follow, in their excursions, the numerous travellers who have described this colony, for a long time the subject of so much pride to the French, at this day the subject of so much regret. Let us terminate this sketch by some statistical descriptions.

Population.

The population of the isle consisted in 1806, according to a recent account, of thirteen thousand nine hundred and fifty-two free persons, and sixty thousand six hundred and forty-six slaves; total seventy-four thousand six hundred and eighteen. It is conjectured that, at the moment of conquest, it had reached the number of ninety

* Milbert, Voyage to the Isle of France, tom. I. p. 129.

† In the Atlas des Voyages, de M. Milbert.

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thousand souls. The revenue was valued, for the year 1810, at a million, and from 6 to 700,000 francs. It arose chiefly from custom-house duties. Among the principal expenses paid out of the revenue, was that for the purchase of corn and flour.*

Isle Rodriguez.

The Isle of *Diego Rodriguez*, which supplies the Isle of France with many thousands of turtle, has lately received some inhabitants. Before that time an incredible number of crabs formed its sole population.†

Researches of M. Buache on the Isle Juan de Lisboa.

In a course directed to the south-east of this island, towards those of St. Paul and Amsterdam, the navigator might perhaps reach the famous island of *Juan de Lisboa*, the doubtful existence of which has so much occupied the attention of navigators and geographers; nor have they hitherto, by their researches, made out any thing satisfactory.

Ancient charts.

*Hugues de Linschot*,‡ in his chart of the Indian seas, published in 1638, delineates two islands, at this day unknown, the one to the south of the Mascarenhas, in the 26° of southern latitude, called Juan de Lisboa, and the other to the south-east of Rodriguez, in the 28° of latitude, which he calls the island *dos Romeiros:* they are distant from each other about two hundred and forty leagues.

The chart of *Robert Dudley*, author of the *Arcano del Mare*, published in 1647, notices in the south-west of *Maurizio*, two islands, the one called *Santa Apollinia*, the other *Dascaienhas*, and in the east, at a distance of from 3 to 4°, two other small ones, marked simply as English discoveries. No island is marked in that part of the sea where Juan de Lisboa is looked for; but this note is found: The *longitude of the island Romeras de Castelhanas* (reckoning from the point of the Azores) is 98° and a half, and the latitude 28° 20′.

* Milbert, t. II. p. 231—241. † Leguat, Voyage des Indes.

‡ *Dos Romeiros* occurs in G. Mercator's map, by his son, 1593; both it and *Juan de Lisboa*, in Maginus Ptolemy, Arnh. 1617. Dos Romeiros, lat. 23°, 36°, 39° South, and long. 90°, 80° East; in different maps. Juan de Lisboa, lat. 28° South, long. 80° East of Teneriffe. Both places are probably from Verlomann. Ed. Ptol. Mag. p. 25. 177. 284.

*Texeira's* chart, printed in 1649, points out to the south of Mascarenhas, in the 26° of latitude, the *Island dos Romeiros dos Castelhanos*, and to the south-east of Diego Rodriguez, another island called *dos Romeiros*, distant one from the other more than 290 leagues.

*Pieter Goss*, in the chart published by *Van Keulen* in 1680, places the island of *Juan de Lisboa* to the south of Mascarenhas, in 26° and a half of latitude, and the *island dos Romeiros dos Castelhanos*, in 28° and a half of latitude, and 15° to the east of the meridian of Mascarenhas. But in another chart of *Von Keulen*, much more modern, the island dos Romeiros only is marked, situated in the 28° of latitude, and 11° and a half to the east of the meridian of Mascarenhas or Bourbon.*

The various conjectures of later hydrographers, being founded entirely upon individual opinion, afford less interest.

The island is condemned.

D'Anville, in 1727, unites the two islands Juan de Lisboa and Romeiros into one, and places it immediately to the south of Bourbon, under the name of the Island dos Romeiros dos Castelhanos, or of Juan de Lisboa; but rejects it altogether in 1749. *Daprés de Mannevillette* makes no farther mention of it in his eastern Neptune.

Recent assurances of its existence.

Thus, after having during nearly a century prolonged its uncertain and wandering existence in the charts, at one time alone, at another in company with one or two islands, under the name of dos Romeiros, the island Juan de Lisboa appeared to be overwhelmed in the depths of the ocean, like the supposed southern continent.† Nevertheless, a tradition of its existence, preserved among some descendants of pirates, established in the isle of Bourbon, gave it new interest about fifty years ago. In the Isle of France were handed about, notes and extracts of obscure, incoherent, and contradictory journals, to which, however, some importance was given by the comments of European geographers. These notes, added to a memoir

* Memoir of M. Buache, amongst those of the Institute, Sciences Mor. et Polit. tom. IV, p. 9. et suiv.

† Compare Book VII. p. 160.

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on the Isle of Bourbon, presented to the general committee of the India Company, on the 11th of February 1771, established as a principle "that the island of Juan de Lisboa appeared imaginary to those navigators only who had not found it out." As a proof of this, they declare "that a bucanier had disembarked on it, *not more than six years ago*, and had killed, according to his own account, twelve or fifteen oxen in less than two hours!" They farther bring forward the testimony of a certain M. Boynot, who "assures us that he had seen and sailed round it towards the end of the year 1707, in returning from the Isle of Bourbon to Pondicherry." How is it possible to doubt his veracity since he has the modesty to assert, that "he is indebted for this discovery to some bucaniers at that time on board his ship, and takes care to tell us that, by passing to the south of Madagascar, he very much shortened his passage," although the assertion is in direct opposition to all that is known concerning the winds and currents in the channel of Mozambique. Farther, this companion of bucaniers observed this island exactly as Texeira represents that of Romeiros, and yet he had not seen the chart of this Portuguese, nor that of Van Keulen, when, *in conversation*, he was spoken to about the island of Juan de Lisboa. "This circumstance renders it credible," adds the note, "that what M. Boynot asserts *is true*, we being convinced that he would not willingly have imposed upon them."

Voyage of M. Boynot.

Discovery of M. Sornin.

More reliance is to be placed upon the "authentic discovery" made by Captain Sornin, in passing from the Cape of Good Hope to the Isle of France. This happened on the 1st of May, 1772, in south latitude 26° 30′, and 63° 50′ east of Paris. "From day-light to noon," says the extract from his journal, "the winds had made the round of the compass, with hail, rain, thunder, and lightning; the sea very high, the air much heated." At ten o'clock in the morning, he sees land very distinctly in the north-west. He immediately tacks to reconnoitre it, is satisfied of it at eleven o'clock, tacks about with the wind a-stern, runs towards the east, conceiving "*that it might be the south-*

*ern point of Madagascar,"* and on the 12th puts into Rodriguez, where he finds three leagues difference to the east, and supposes that this land, according to his reckoning, "*is placed in the S. S. E. of Rodriguez*, at a distance of one hundred and forty-two leagues. "What confusion! How is it possible in this account of a ship tossed about in a storm to find a confirmation of the existence of Saint Juan de Lisboa? Vice-Admiral Thevenard, who appears to give credit to it,* relies on Captain Donjon, lieutenant of a ship not named, which is really, however, that of Captain Sornin. According to this officer's journal, he saw land on the 27th of April, 1772, at half-past nine in the morning, "in a very violent storm, with much rain, thunder, and lightning," at a distance of from ten to twelve leagues in the west, in east longitude 76° 34′, and south latitude 27° 26′ observed at noon. He did not lose sight of the land from eleven o'clock till night, continuing the tack of east-south-east, and arrived on the twelfth day at Rodriguez, with forty-seven leagues difference to the east, which made him think that this land exists on that part of the sea between 76° to 80° of longitude, and in 27° 30′ of latitude. But in a private letter to M. Entrecasteaux, with an extract of his journal, and a view of the land, Captain Donjon, after having undoubtedly completed his observations in his closet, fixed the estimated longitude of his pretended discovery to 73° 36′, which, from that time, he does not hesitate to designate by the name of Saint Juan de Lisboa.†

New official Researches.

However frivolous and unsatisfactory these accounts are, the governing authorities of the Isle of France have nevertheless often ordered their official verification. The researches of M. de St. Felix, in 1773, and of M. Corval de Grenville, in 1782 and 1783, have been fruitless; but it would appear that they have not been sufficiently extended towards the east, within the space that separates Saint Paul from the Maldives Islands. M. Rochon adds, at the

* Mémoires relatifs à la Marine, t. IV. p. 428.

† Mémoire de M. Buache, p. 296—303.

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end of an extract of M. Sornin's journal, inserted in his voyages to the East Indies: "In returning from Madagascar, we thought at one time that we perceived the island of Saint Juan de Lisboa, but the illusion was caused by clouds, to which the most experienced mariners are too often exposed." Kerguelen and Marion have also searched for it in vain.* Notwithstanding all these negative testimonies, many trading captains have recently maintained their having visited Juan de Lisboa.

This island then is a true haunting-spirit. It appears as a phantom to a certain select few, and disappears from the sight of the profane as soon as they approach it.

Hypothesis of M. Epidariste Collin.

A new hypothesis has been proposed by M. Collin: he believes that the name of Juan de Lisboa, in the ancient charts, was originally that of the Isle of France.

Nevertheless, the secretary of the government of Mozambique has assured him that, in the charts deposited in the archives, exists the proces-verbal of the evacuation of the Portuguese colony of Juan de Lisboa; as well as an inventory of effects transported from this island to the coast of Africa. All the efforts of M. Collin, to procure a sight of it, have proved fruitless. It is not known whether it was a permanent establishment, a post, or a mere attempt at settling. The year, and even the age is unknown; moreover, the side of the island is unknown which at the time bore a name not considered by the Portuguese Texeira worthy of being introduced into his chart. It appears certain that it could not have been the Isle of France, then well known by the name of *Cerne*.†

We conceive that the island of Juan de Lisboa is identical with that of Romeiros, and that it may, notwithstanding all doubts on the subject, really exist, but that it ought to be looked for in the meridians to the east of the isles of Saint Paul and Amsterdam, which, with the land of Ker-

* Collin, Mém. sur Juan de Lisboa, Annales des Voyages, tom. X. p. 364.

† Yet *Cerne* was rather applied to Madagascar. The old maps have both Mauritius and Bourbon without names. In 1598, Mauritius received its present name. Magin. Ptol. 25. Cluv. Geogr. p. 412. Rob. Nav. Intr. p. 27. and p. 450 above.

guelen, appear to us to indicate a submarine chain, both in the direction of Cape Comorin, and Cape Leuwin.

Islands of Saint Paul and Amsterdam.

The islands of *Saint Paul* and *Saint Peter*, the last of which has also been called *Amsterdam*, have been objects of singular confusion. According to the navigator who first examined them with care, that of Amsterdam, or Saint Peter, is the most northern. It consists of a conical mountain, the summit of which appears to be the chimney of an extinct crater. A layer of turf three feet in height covers the pumice stone, or ancient lava. Thick groves render access to the interior very difficult; but the trees, not being able to push their roots far under ground, remain small. Lizards, and the trace of a fox, are supposed to have been seen. The Island *Saint Paul*, the most southern, is in shape a circular mountain, hollowed in the centre in the form of a crater; the sea, in consequence of the falling in of one of its sides, has penetrated into this basin. The pond or lake filling up the bottom, contains an immense quantity of fish, particularly excellent perch. Hot and chalybeate springs flow between the lavas, interspersed with patches of fine green turf.* This description, so satisfactory and so worthy of the ingenious observer to whom we are indebted, has been set aside by the presumptuous caprices of some modern navigators. Mr. Barrow, misled by the author of the charts of Cook's voyage, has described at length the island Saint Paul, by the name of Amsterdam, and appears astonished at the pretended changes he thinks he has observed, and which he attributes to physical revolutions.† M. Beautems Beaupré, in the atlas of the Entrecasteaux, has gone farther: he has given six views of the pretended isle of Amsterdam, which is really only that of Saint Paul, proved by comparing the designs found in the work of Valentyn. At the moment of the French passing the island, the volcano was emitting both flame and smoke; they were, how-

Physical description.

Confusion on the subject of this island.

* Van Vlaming, in Valentyn, Ostindien, III^e^ partie. ou t. IV. sect. 2, p. 68—70.

† Voyage to Cochinchina, etc.

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ever, able to ascertain the form of every part of it, not excepting the isolated rock, which, according to Barrow, is basalt. M. Rossel, compiler of the voyage, discusses its geographical position with precision, without having perceived the confusion of names, which is proved by the latitude in which he places the island.*

Land of Kerguelen.

Ten degrees farther south, *Kerguelen's Land*, called *Island of Desolation* by Captain Cook, presents its barren rocks, surrounded by masses of ice, and inhabited by seals. The almost total want of vegetation on this considerable island cannot alone be occasioned by rigour of climate; it is owing to the total want of earth, sufficiently copious to develop within itself the power of vegetation. Many excellent harbours might render this station useful to enterprising whalers. More to the west, the *Marian Isles*, and those of *Prince Edward*, in like manner present only the wretched nakedness of a rock devoid of vegetation.

Marian and Prince Edward Isles.

Discussion on Dina, and Marseveen.

We have now terminated the description of the Eastern African Islands; for those marked in several charts under the names of *Dina* and *Marseveen*, do not exist. No account or description of these isles can be found. It is not known at what epoch, or by whom they were discovered; no one has seen them. In later times, they have escaped the researches of Marian and Cook. It has been said, that the Dutch at the Cape are acquainted with them, and even go there in search of wood; but neither Valentyn, nor Mentzel, in their prolix accounts of the Cape, make mention of them. What motive could the Dutch have in concealing from Europe the situation of these two insignificant islands, since they have given the greatest publicity to all their other discoveries, much more important in themselves, and which might indeed have excited the envy of powers jealous of their commerce? It is more natural to suppose, with M. Buache, that these isles have crept into our charts, like many others that have for sometime occupied, and do still in part occupy, a place which sound criticism does not allow them.

* D'Entrecasteaux, Voyage, t. I. p. 44.

In examining an ancient chart of *Nicolas Carnerio*, a Genoese, necessarily made a short time after the first voyages of Europeans to the Indies and America, this philosopher was struck with the name of *Dina Margabin*, applied to an isle situated in the same tract of the ocean now assigned to the isles Dina and Marseveen.* Carnerio's chart represents with sufficient minuteness and precision the western and southern coasts of Africa, as far as Melinda; but the rest is traced in an uncertain and slovenly manner. The Island of Madagascar there extends from 30° to 40° of south latitude; the Comora Isles, discoverable under the names of *Jana* and *Calienzuan*, are found in the 18° to the east of the northern point of Madagascar. Three other islands, named *Dina Margabin*, *Dina Moraze*, and *Dina Arobi*, and placed to the east of the southern point of Madagascar, in the same latitude assigned to the two last islands, can be no other than the Isles of Bourbon, Rodriguez, and France, or Mauritius. Without enumerating all the reasons militating in favour of this opinion, we shall merely observe here that *Dina Margabin*, the most western, the nearest to Madagascar, and the largest, has a golden colouring that distinguishes it from the rest as the principal of the group. The name of *Margabin* is very analogous to the Arabic word *Mogrebin*, that signifies western; as to the word *dina*, joined to each of the three names, this can only be a generic name, very like, at least in the manuscripts, to the Arabic word *diva*, which signifies an island, and is discernible in the names of Diu, Maldives, &c. Thus, *Dina Marseveen*, is only one and the same name, corrupted and afterwards divided into two by travellers or superficial geographers, who perhaps knew the existence of several islands in the environs of Dina Margabin, forgetting at the same time that they were more generally designated by the name of the principal among them. The difference of the position

Hypothesis of M. Buache.

* Buache, Mém. sur Dina et Marseveen, in the Mémoires de l'Institut. Sciences Morales et Politiques, t. IV. p. 367.

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of the Mascarenha isles, in Carneiro's chart, and their real situation, proves nothing against their identity, since the great island of Madagascar has incontestibly tended to set them all towards the east, particularly at a period when these seas were known only from the accounts of the Arabians, with whom the Portuguese communicated on the south-east coast of Africa. The would-be geographers, or copiers of charts, on observing the Mascarenha isles more exactly marked, and called by other names, thought it right to retain or replace a little more to the west the names of Dina Margabin, Marseveen, or even Dina and Marseveen, in order that no void space might be left. The *Ephemerides of Coimbra*, of 1807, place the island of *Denia*, or *Dina*, in 40° 32′ South, and of 18° 49′ 7″, East of Paris.

Observations on this hypothesis.

We have carefully endeavoured to discover if any thing were in opposition to the adoption of this ingenious hypothesis. One fact only has presented itself; it is the existence of a vessel belonging to Dutch India, bearing the precise name of *Marseveen*, during the very period that these isles first began to appear upon the charts.* This circumstance, however trifling it may appear, might render farther researches into the Dutch archives necessary, before admitting M. Buache's hypothesis. Even supposing, however, that the island Marseveen exists, it is probably identical with Gough, or Gonzalo-Alvarez island, situated much further towards the west.

* Valentyn, Ostindien, t. I. p. 236. List of vessels.

# BOOK LXXIV.

## AFRICA.

*Continuation of the Description of Africa.—The Western African Islands.*



To the west of the Cape of Good Hope extends the southern Atlantic Ocean, which ought perhaps to be called the *African Ocean*, since the epithet *Ethiopean* gives a false idea of it. South America bounds it on the west; Cape Saint Roch and Cape Taguin on the north-west.—The *Gulf of Guinea* forms its most anterior hollow towards the north-east. Almost without islands, this part of the ocean is influenced very regularly by the trade-winds, and by the general current causing both the air and waters to move towards the west. The trade wind, however, ceases to blow at one or two degrees north of the equator, where it is succeeded by west and south-west winds, which retain vessels in the Gulf of Guinea, to the great dread of navigators.

African sea.

The first island to the west of the Cape of Good Hope is that of *Circumcision*, discovered in 1739 by Captain Bouvet, and again found by two English vessels in 1808. Since Captain Cook's fruitless search, it had been supposed that Captain Bouvet had only seen a mass of ice.* Under a milder climate are found the islands *Diego-Alvarez* and *Gough*, apparently the same as *Gonzalo-Alvarez*. This last is 4380 feet high: fine cascades here water a soil covered with green turf, where several shrubs grow among

Circumcision island.

* Oriental Navigator, London, 1816. See the Table of Positions following.

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the rocks.* The *Tristan d'Acunha* islands are better known, they are four in number. The principal island shews its round head at a distance, 8326 feet in height, clothed with verdure half way up, and covered with snow during many months of the year. Shrubs of the genus *Phyllica* shade the limpid streams with their thick foliage.† An American has taken possession of these isles, and has successfully planted cotton and corn; he purposes forming an establishment for the refreshment of ships on their way to the Indies.

Tristan d'Acunha Islands.

Island of Saint Helena.

An immense aquatic desert extends from these isles to that of Saint Helena. An imperceptible point in the Atlantic Ocean, this rock is nine leagues in its greatest circumference. Steep shores form for it a natural and nearly impregnable rampart. It is divided into two unequal parts by a chain of mountains intersected by deep valleys. The peak of Diana, at the eastern extremity of the great chain, is 2692 feet above the level of the sea. Basalt constitutes the base of the island; and a great quantity of lava and scoriae attest its volcanic nature. There is lime of excellent quality, stones that admit of a very fine polish, and clays of different colours. Gold and copper were supposed to exist, as well as mines of iron, which the want of combustible matter will not prevent their working, if it be true that beds of pit-coal exist. The land, generally rich and deep, contains many saline particles. The coast is very barren in appearance, but a rich verdure covers the interior of the island, even to the tops of the mountains, from which springs of wholesome and clear water exude from every side. The *sandy valley* is not the only picturesque scene that has employed the pencil of the artist. Besides about ten indigenous trees or shrubs, at present not well known, among which are three species of gum-trees, the finest flowers of Europe and Africa may be seen

Physical details.

* Heywood, quoted in l'Orient. Navig. p. 18.

† Du Petit-Thouars, description of the Isles of Tristan-d'Acunha, pamphlet in 8vo. with a chart; Heywood; Patten, etc.

displaying their beautiful colours by the side of antiscorbutic plants, extolled by mariners. The cultivation of almost all the fruits and commodities of Europe and Asia succeeds here. The pasturage feeds a great many oxen, sheep and goats, a resource highly valued by navigators.

It has a population of about two thousand persons, of which five hundred are whites, and 1500 are negroes, the garrison not included. Jamestown, on the north-west coast, is the only city and port of Saint Helena. The approaches are defended by good fortifications. It being the ordinary place of refreshment for ships returning from India, it ceases from being a spot of agreeable solitude once during the year, to become a noisy market place. At the time of its discovery in 1502, the interior was only one large forest, and the gum-tree even grew on the edges of the rocks suspended over the sea. Fernando Lopez, a Portuguese renegado, who in 1513 obtained the favour of living in exile here, first stored it with she-goats, hogs, pintadoes, turkeys, partridges, pheasants, peacocks, and other species of birds; he planted roots of vegetables and fruit-trees. The Portuguese having in time deserted it for their establishments on the south-east coast of Africa, it was taken possession of by the Dutch, and abandoned by them in 1651 for the Cape of Good Hope. The English afterwards established themselves here. From that time, until the period of their getting possession in their turn of the Cape of Good Hope, it was the only resting place possessed by the English East India Company for the refreshment of their ships in the Atlantic Ocean. At the present day, associated with the destinies of the earth, this small island, which, during life, was the prison, is still the sole repository of the ashes of him whose genius, but a little before, shook the foundations of the civilized world.*

City.

Historical details.

*Ascension* Island, a rock without water, and nearly without vegetation, is an attraction to navigators from the im-

Ascension Island.

* Brookes's Description of the island of St. Helena; London, 1808. trad. franc. par M. Cohen, avec des Notes par M. Malte-Brun. Voyage of Forster. Valentia, etc.

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mense quantity of turtles that come to repose themselves on its shores, which are covered with lavas and volcanic scoriæ.

Islands in the Gulf of Guinea.

At the bottom of the Gulf of Guinea, a cluster of islands appears to indicate the continuation of some chain of mountains of the neighbouring continent.

The island of *Fernando-Po*, or more properly *Fernao-do-Po*, situated twelve leagues to the south of Bacxasey Point, derives its name from a gentleman in the service of King Alphonso the Fifth of Portugal, who discovered it in 1472, and called it *Formosa*, or beautiful island. It is eight leagues long, from north-east to south-east, and about three wide. It is represented as very high, woody, frequently covered with clouds, very fertile in sugar-canes, cotton, tobacco, manioc, potatoes, fruits, and other commodities bartered here for bars and iron ware. Portugal, after having previously abandoned it, ceded it in 1778 to Spain; its population is a mixture of mulattoes and negroes, who have not a very good character. Dalzel says, that the Spaniards have been driven by the natives from the fort they attempted to construct during the American war.* It appears, however, that their colony is in a flourishing state, as Wadstrom relates that all the ships of Camerones, of Del-Rey, and Calabar, constantly find here an ample store of all kinds of provisions.† The ordinary anchorage, where ships take in wood and water, is only an open road on the northern side.

Prince Island.

*Prince Island*, or *Ilha do Principe*, twenty-eight leagues distant to the S. S. W. of Fernando-Po, is nearly eight leagues long, and six broad. It is the ordinary rendezvouz of the Guineamen, the harbours being considered the best in this group of islands. The air is healthy and agreeable; the water excellent. Many fresh and clear streams descend to the coast; a small lake occupies the summit of a high mountain in the middle of the island. It

* Dalzel, Nautical Instructions for the coast of Africa.

† Wadstrom's Essay on the Colonies.

abounds in wood, cocoa-nuts, maize, manioc, tame animals, and poultry. The city, built near the north-east point, contains two hundred houses of one story, two churches, and a convent;* there are about fifty whites, the remaining population consists of mulattoes and free negroes, who maintain a great many slaves. A small fort, guarded by Portuguese exiles, defends the entry of the harbour.

Island of St. Thomas.

At twenty leagues distance south-west of Prince's Island, under the equator, is the island of Saint Thomas: it is twelve leagues in length, and seven in its greatest breadth, with fifteen thousand inhabitants, the greater part negroes or mulattoes.† The northern part is composed of high mountains, terminating in peaks, always enveloped in clouds, which, at a distance, look like smoke, and what voyagers have taken for perpetual snow. Moreover, the great and continual heat of the climate raises in the valleys thick and fetid fogs, that frequently envelope the whole island, and become, particularly during the months of December, January, and February, the cause of numerous diseases. In July and August, the south-east and south-west winds revive the debilitated habits of Europeans, but they are very pernicious to the natives. Nevertheless, it is asserted that the people of colour, and the blacks, often live to the age of an hundred or more, while the white inhabitants scarcely attain fifty or sixty years.‡ However it may be, the astonishing fertility of the soil braves every inconvenience of the climate. The produce in raw sugar may be estimated at three millions of pounds weight in the year. The vine has been cultivated with success. Maize, millet, manioc, potatoes, yams, cocoa-nuts, bananas, oranges, lemons, dates, and melons, abound in every part. Cassava is eaten instead of bread. The cinnamon tree has been recently discovered there.§ The flesh of the sheep and she-goats is excellent; but the oxen

Climate.

Productions.

* Marchais, tom. III. p. 30.

† Pommegorge, Descript. de la Nigritie, p. 249.

‡ Marchais, III. 3. § Wadstrom, p. 241.

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are smaller, and less fat than in Europe. Hogs are bred in considerable numbers, and fattened with the sugar-cane, ground in mills. Poultry is very productive, and the rivers swarm with fish. Saint Thomas or Panoasan,* the capital has 500 houses, principally of wood, two or three churches, and two convents: it is defended by a fort built upon a tongue of land. The road serves as a place of refreshment to vessels that have been prevented reaching Prince's Island, on account of contrary winds.† All kinds of provision can be procured for old clothes and old linen.

Political and moral state.

The island of Saint Thomas is under the command of a mulatto governor; and its administration is conducted by a council of twelve natives. Every thing breathes pleasure and luxury. The slaves do not feel the effects of slavery, and scarcely work two or three days in the week. Black priests perform the duty of the churches or chapels dispersed about the island, in number eight or nine.‡ The greater number of them cannot even read; but they have each two or three concubines.§ Some white or mulatto capuchins, living in a small convent, are not more rigid in their conduct. Bishops have been sent at different periods by the court of Lisbon to re-establish religious discipline, but they generally died in a few days.

Among the islands in the vicinity of Saint Thomas, that of *Rolas* is about two leagues in length.

Annabona Island.

*Annabona* or *Bonanno* island, discovered by the Portuguese on the first day of the year 1743, has been ceded to Spain with that of Fernando-Po. It is about twenty-nine leagues south-west of Rolas, and may be about seven or eight leagues in circumference.‖ The land is high, the climate healthy, and it is intersected by rich valleys, bordered by mountains covered with a rich verdure, and covered with mists not unfavourable to health. Delicious

* Perhaps Panoasan is merely corruption of *Povoaçao*, which signifies a city in Portuguese.

† Rœmer, p. 280.; Bosman, p. 442. ‡ Ramsay's Inquiry, etc. p. 36.

§ Bruns et Dalzel. ‖ Tuckey's Voyage up the Congo, 1816.

and very large oranges, cotton, tamarinds, pomegranates, and all the commodities of the three preceding islands, may be procured in return for salt and old clothes. The population is from eight to nine hundred inhabitants, who are the descendants of slaves thrown upon this island during a voyage to Brasil. Dalzell states, that at the moment of taking possession, the Spaniards were repulsed by the natives, already not well disposed towards the Portuguese. The only anchorage is on the northern side, and is very indifferent.

Island of Saint Matthew.

We shall not inquire concerning *Saint Matthew's* Island, the situation of which no modern navigator has been able to find. It is probable that of Anna-Bona, placed in a false longitude. The question, however, must remain undecided.

Sea of Thunder.

On leaving the Gulf of Guinea, and bearing up direct to the Cape-Verd Islands, along the meridians of these very islands, that part of the ocean must be traversed, so fatal to navigators, where long calms detain the ships under a sky charged with electric clouds, pouring down by turns torrents of rain and of fire. This *sea of thunder*, being a focus of mortal diseases, is avoided as much as possible, both in approaching the coasts of Africa, and in seeking those of America.

Cape Verd Islands.

San-Iago.

The archipelago of the *Cape-Verd Islands*, belonging to the Portuguese, comprehends ten islands, besides islets and rocks. The principal one is *San-Iago*. At first sight the eye is offended by the appearance of barrenness; it looks as if it had just suffered from a great fire. Naked rocks, heaped in disorder one over the other, cut off and rent by fantastic fractures, rise from the bottom of the sea, and extend themselves aloft to the clouds.* On shore, the deplorable state of the inhabitants grieves the soul: their colour is so deep, that they do not appear to have the least mixture of European blood circulating in their veins, even

* Wurmb, Voyage aux Indes, p. 53.

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though they themselves boast of being Portuguese.* The clergy is composed of men of colour, and even of negroes. The general misery arises, partly from the bad government, and partly from the droughts that sometimes visit the islands during several successive years. The principal production is salt, the exclusive sale of which for Brasil is the profit of the government. Along the hillocks, and in the valleys, where the dew and moisture of the sea-air support vegetation, cocoa trees, banana trees, papaws, covered with an eternal verdure, display their wholesome fruits.

Productions.

The tamarind and the Adansonia, afford a considerable shade. Nothing can equal the beauty of the oranges and lemons of the country. The guiavas, figs, the sweet potatoes, gourds, and water-melons, are of an excellent quality. The vine and sugar cane grow. Indigo and cotton trees, although left to themselves, thrive exceedingly. The silky down of the asclepias, which are observed to flower in every direction, serves to stuff pillows and mattrasses. Rice and maize constitute the ordinary food of the people; but when the periodical rains fail, the soil, calcined by a devouring sun, resists the spade, and the poor are in danger of starving; for Fahrenheit's thermometer seldom descends below 80°, and often rises above 90.

Mountains.

The mountains of the island are filled with goats and small young bulls. The peasants chase Guinea birds, wood pigeons, turtle doves, and other wild fowls. The only tolerable sea fish is a species of mullet; but the land-tortoises that swarm in the valleys, furnish a delicious food. Good water for drinking is scarce. It would be wrong, however, to judge of the island from the state of the city of

City.

*Puerto-Praya,* where navigators land. It consists of two rows of low rustic houses, intermixed with huts of a still more miserable appearance. A redoubt, fallen into ruins, affords a weak protection to the anchorage. But *San-Iago,* the ancient capital, and *Ribeira-Grande,* the residence of the

* Barrow's Voyage to Cochinchina.

governors, have a better appearance, and even contain some tolerably large buildings. BOOK LXXIV.

*Mayo* island, well furnished with cattle and cotton, the island of *Fuego*, (of Fire) which, notwithstanding its very active volcano, produces good fruits, and the island *Brava*, or *Saint John*, which produces excellent wine and saltpetre, form a chain, with that of San-Iago, in a direction from east to west. Mayo, Fuego, &c.

The island *Boa-Vista*, (Bonne Vue) remarkable for a less elevated soil, very fertile in cotton and indigo, forms, with the island of *Sel*, or *do Sal*, a line north and south.

The four remaining islands form part of a chain in a direction of S. E. to N. W., and succeed each other in the following order. *St. Nicholas*, one of the largest, and best governed of the whole archipelago, includes a city of the same name, where very good cotton stuffs are manufactured. The soil of the island is hilly and fertile in fruits, but they only make a very sour wine. *Santa Lucia*, high and wooded, has only brackish water. *San Vincente* is inhabited, and, like the former, abounds in wood and tortoises. *San-Antonio*, the mountains of which are said to equal in height the Peak of Teneriffe, produces in its well-watered valleys, the indigo plant, the dragon, the orange and lemon trees. Islands St. Vincent, &c.

In spite of the droughts to which these islands are subject, their natural produce in cotton, indigo, fruits, salt, goat skins, and turtle oil, might give them a considerable value under a more intelligent government. Their actual population is estimated at forty-two thousand souls.

To the north of the Cape Verd islands, the waters of the ocean disappear under a thick bed of sea-weed, which, like a floating meadow, is extended as far as the twenty-fifth parallel, and occupies a space of 60,000 square leagues; ships disengage themselves from it with difficulty. Other masses of sea-weed are also seen in parts of the sea more to the north-west, almost under the meridian of *Cuervo*, and *Flores*, islands of the Azores, between the twenty-third and thirty-fifth northern parallels. The ancients were The sea of herbs, or of Sargasso.

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acquainted with these parts of the sea, exhibiting the appearance of fields. "Some Phœnician ships," says Aristotle,* "driven by an east wind, arrived, after a sail of thirty days, into a situation where the sea was covered with reeds and sea-weed." Some persons have conceived that this abundance of sea-weed, was a phenomenon proving the ancient existence of an Atlantis since swallowed up. It appears, that these facts were forgotten in the time of Christopher Columbus, for his companions were seized with terror on seeing this part of the sea, so abundant in plants, which the Portuguese called *Mar de Sargasso*. The sea, covered with sea-weed, in the environs of Cape Verd Islands, is also described in the Periplus of Scylax.† "The sea beyond Cerne is no longer navigable, on account of its shallowness, swamps, and sea-weed. The sea-weed is a cubit in thickness, and its superior extremity is pointed and sharp."

These passages of the ancients appear to demonstrate that their navigations terminated only at Cape Blanco, as we have already admitted, and not at Cape Boyador, as the learned M. Gosselin supposes. For the situation of the *Sea of Sargasso* could not have changed considerably, seeing that it depends on the winds and currents, eternal agents of immutable nature. At the most, the limits of these banks of marine plants may have formerly been a little less extensive.

Canary Islands.

The celebrated archipelago of the *Canary Islands*, conducts us towards the empire of civilization. It forms almost a part of Europe. What has not been written on the soft temperature of these islands, and on the pleasant landscapes contained within the compass of these rocks!

Lancerota.

*Lancerota* on the east commences the chain. Stripped of its forests, it experiences, like the neighbouring continent, most destructive droughts; camels are, nevertheless, maintained in great numbers, and corn, barley, and vege-

* Aristot. de Mirabilibus, p. 1157; ed. of Duval; Paris.

† Ed. Gronovii, p. 126.

tables are exported. The vine grows with strength among the volcanic ashes.* *Teguisa* is its capital. This isle possesses the two best ports of the archipelago; it is called by the natives *Titeroygotou*, and it is much more advanced in civilization than the isles situated more to the west. The inhabitants lived in houses built of free-stone, at the time when the Guanches of Teneriffe were lodged in caverns. Here is found the singular custom also existing in Thibet, which allows a woman to have several husbands.† These traces of manners appear to add considerable weight to our opinion, according to which the isles of Lancerota and Fortaventura were those only known by the ancient civilized world.

Ancient inhabitants.

*Fortaventura*, the indigenous name of which was *Erbania*, has nearly the same soil as Lancerota. The inhabitants are furnished with water from cisterns only. Nevertheless in good years they export both corn and barley. They also collect barilla, cotton, and wine of a middling quality. *Betancuria*, the principal town, retains the name of the first modern conqueror of the Canaries.

Fortaventura.

The four islands of *Great-Canary*, *Teneriffe*, *Gomera*, and *Palma*, compose a chain of very high mountains, in a direction from east to west. *Canary* having a very fertile soil, watered by clear streams, and enjoying a moderate temperature, would be the most important of this archipelago, if it had a better road, and if one hundred and fifty estates formed into *majorats* did not remain uncultivated.‡ It produces maize, corn, barley, wine, sugar much esteemed, olives, and silk. The city of *Las-Palmas*, is the seat of the ecclesiastical authorities. The village of *Gualdar* consists of grottos, cut in the rocks by the ancient natives. On mount *Duremas*, the perfume of the groves, the mur-

Great Canary.

* Tessier, Etat de l'agriculture aux îles Canaries, dans les Mémoires de l'Institut, sciences phys. an 6. t. I.

† Viera de Clavijo, Noticias di la Historia de las islas Canarias, t. I. p. 150. 171, etc.

‡ Viajero universal, de P. Estala. t. XI. p. 207. Bory de Saint-Vincent, Essai sur les îles Fortunées, t. V.

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muring of the waters, and the song of canary birds, recal to the mind every thing written by the poets concerning the Fortunate Isles.

Teneriffe.

*Teneriffe*, the largest and most populous of these islands, had among the natives the name of *Chinerife*. The basaltic mountains of which its mass is formed, are in general six hundred toises above the level of the sea. The

The peak.

southern part includes the famous *Peak of Teyde*, or more accurately of *Echeyde*, that is, of Hell. It also bore among the Guanches the name of Aya-Dyrma; it is perhaps, of all the volcanic mountains, that which has most occupied the attention of the moderns. Nevertheless, its elevation has only lately been determined with precision,

Its height.

which is nineteen hundred and four toises, or eleven thousand four hundred and twenty-four feet.* Two-thirds of the cone formed by this mountain, are covered with a fine vegetation, in the middle of which few modern lavas are seen; one may traverse groves of bay trees, often surrounded by clouds. After having passed the region of clouds, the dry and desert soil begins to be covered with pumice stones, and obsidian, or vitreous lavas. This barren region occupies a space of ten square leagues of surface.† A vast and deep reservoir contains water, which is frozen in the month of September. The volcanic cone, properly called, has so steep a declivity, that it is only possible to mount it by following an ancient torrent of lava. The crater occasionally emits smoke, and the surrounding surface is in many places sufficiently heated to burn the shoes of travellers in walking. This volcano appears, however, to act more from the sides than summit; enormous lateral eruptions have attested, within twenty years, the continued violence of subterranean fire. Many appearances prove that there are considerable de-

* According to Borda, Pingre and Cordier. The ancient estimates raise it higher. According to Cassini, it is 2634 toises; to Heberden, 2409; to Feuillée, 2213; to Bouguer, 2062. A Spaniard, D. Manuel Hernandez, brings it down to 1742. These measures are in French feet.

† A. de Humboldt, Voyage; Relation Historique, t. I. liv. I. ch. 2.

pots of water in the interior caverns of the Peak, that exhale in vapours through different channels; the two most remarkable bear the name of *narines*.

Productions of the island.

At the foot of this ignivomous mountain is expanded one of the finest countries of the world. The small hills, cultivated in many places with as much attention as a garden, produce the most delicious fruits, and the highest flavoured wines. Teneriffe wine is of two kinds, *malvoisin* and *vidogne;* twenty thousand pipes are made in abundant years.* The flora of Teneriffe may give an idea of that of all the Canaries. The banana-tree, the papaw, and the magnificent *Poinciana,* adorn the gardens; the trichomanes of the Canaries, a handsome fern, covers the walls.† The cactus, cacalia, and euphorbia, recal to the mind, by their stiff and pointed forms the vegetable aspect of Africa. The sugar of Teneriffe is from a grass peculiar to this archipelago. The orchil of this island is esteemed. Every traveller has admired a Pterocarpus (*Sanguis draconis,*) of gigantic dimensions, that is preserved in a garden of the charming town of Orotava. "In June, 1799," says M. de Humboldt, "when we had climbed up the Peak of Teneriffe, we found that this enormous vegetable measured forty-five feet in circumference a little above the root."‡ Sir G. Staunton asserts that at the height of ten feet, it is twelve feet in diameter. Tradition reports that this dragon tree was revered by the Guanches, like the ash of Ephesus by the Greeks; and that in 1402, at the time of the first expedition of Bethencour, it was as large and as hollow as at present. Considering that the dragon-tree, in every situation, is of slow growth, we may conclude that that of Orotava is extremely old. It appears, with reason, singular to M. Humboldt, that the dragon-tree has been cultivated from the earliest times in the Canary islands, as well as in those of Madeira and Porto-Santo,

The dragon tree of Orotava.

* Ledru, Voyage à Teneriffe, etc, t. I. p. 126.

† Labillardiere, Voyage, I. 8—21.

‡ Tableau de la Nature, I. p. 109; trad. franc. de M. Eyries.

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although they come originally from India. This fact appears to contradict the assertion of those who represent the Guanches as a race of men altogether isolated, and having had no connexion with the other people of Asia and Africa.

Towns of Teneriffe.

The towns of Teneriffe, the inns of navigators, have been twenty times described with more precision than most European countries.* *Santa-Cruz*, the principal, containing 10,000 inhabitants, is the seat of government of the Canaries. *Laguna*, the ancient capital, boasts its delicious climate, and *Orotova* rivals the most beautiful situations in the world. In the botanic garden, established near this town, the plants of the old and new world intermix their foliage.

Gomera Island.

*Gomera*, a small, very fertile, and well watered island, can almost maintain itself. The mountains of granite and micaceous schistus† are covered with forests, and intersected by beautiful valleys in which the laurel, the date, the lemon, the fig, the walnut, and mulberry flourish. Vegetables, corn, fruits, greenhouse-pears, potatoes, yams, wine, honey, oxen and sheep, mules, poultry, and game, are found in abundance.‡

*Saint-Sebastian*, the chief town, has a good port, where Christopher Columbus refitted his ships in 1492, before proceeding to the discovery of a new world. It has a woollen manufactory and a sugar-house.

Palma Island.

The soil of *Palma* is more elevated than Teneriffe, hilly, and filled with caverns: volcanic, and very barren in its southern part, it is generally fertile and populous only on its coasts, where are cultivated vegetables, good wine, a great deal of sugar, used principally in preserving fruits, in which the island abounds, and a great quantity of almonds. The produce in corn is not sufficient for the con-

* Bory de St. Vincent, Essai sur les îles Fortunées, 230. Ledru, I. 37, Macartney; Barrow, Milbert, etc.

† Broussonet, cité par A. de Humboldt, Voyage I. 168.

‡ According to Milbert, tom. I. p. 96, it is the only island of the Canaries in which deer and goats, brought hither from Ferro by Ledru, are to be found.

sumption of its inhabitants. In years of scarcity, the people live on the roots of fern, as at Gomera. According to Clavijo, there are neither fallow-deer, partridges, nor hares; but rabbits are very numerous, and destroy the trunks of young trees on the sides of the mountains: the regions of clouds only is richly wooded, and gives the island, seen at a distance, the appearance of a forest. A sort of wood of aloes is found here.* *Santa-Cruz de las Palmas*, the capital, has a good port.

Ferro Island.

*Hierro*, or *Ferro*, the most western of the seven Canaries, has a volcanic soil, and little fertile. After having climbed a declivity of more than a league, that rises from the sea shore, we come to flowery fields, where numberless bees collect honey. *Valverde* is the chief town of this island. It has few springs; but the moisture of the soil is maintained by frequent fogs, and has induced the Canarians to surname it *Black Land*. Little corn is cultivated; much ochil; and from 80 to 100,000 reals of brandy is made here annually, extracted from wine and figs.† The pastures feed a great number of cattle, the flesh of which is very good, and the forests contain harts and roe-bucks.

Holy Tree.

*The holy tree* of Ferro Island, an object of so many fabulous tales, appears to have been a *Laurus indica;* it did not furnish the whole island with water, but the vapours condensed by its leaves afforded a considerable quantity, which, in times of drought, was a real resource. This tree, preserved with care, was destroyed in 1612 by a dreadful hurricane. Its existence, in vain called in question by the celebrated critic *Feyjou*, has been juridically verified.‡ The observations, that would have rendered this topography of the Canaries too dry, have been condensed in the following table.

* Viagero Universal, XI. 211.

† Ledru, tom. I. p. 40.

‡ Viagero Universal di P. Estala, tom. XI. p. 139—143.

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Population of the Canaries.

| Names of the islands. | Surface in marine square leagues.* | Population in 1807.† | Produce of corn and barley in fanegas.‡ |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teneriffe | 73 | 81,000 | 89,556 |
| Forteventura | 63 | 12,000 | 150,000 |
| Canaria | 60 | 58,000 | 70,653 |
| Palma | 27 | 25,000 | 41,350 |
| Lancerota | 26 | 13,000 | 155,461 |
| Gomera | 14 | 8,200 | 13,770 |
| Ferro | 7 | 5,700 | 7,000 |
| | 270 S. leagues. | 202,900 inhab. | 530,790 fan. |

Spanish Islanders.

The inhabitants of the Canaries, known by the name of *Islenos* (the islanders,) emigrate in great numbers to the coast of Caraccas, and to the Philippines. Quick and ingenious, like the Andalusians, they are fond of instruction and labour like the Biscayans; they pronounce the Spanish language with a peculiar sweetness.§ Philosophers, like Clavijo,—poets, such as Yriarte, have adorned this people, who still reckon among them some estimable learned men, among whom good French books are very well known. The Canaries, the Cape, and the Isle of France, constitute in Africa almost the whole domain of civilization. The feudal rights, the majorats, and the great extent of fallow lands, arrest the progress of cultivation and the public prosperity in the Canaries.

The Guanches.

What has become of the *Gaunches*, whose mummies alone, buried in caverns, have escaped destruction? In the 15th century, some commercial nations, especially the Spaniards and Portuguese, came in search of slaves to the Canary Islands, as they afterwards did to the coast of Guinea. Under the Guanches, the Archipelago of the Canaries was divided into several small states, hostile to each other, and the interest of Europeans kept up their intestine wars, for the sake of purchasing the prisoners; many

* Measured after the charts of Borda and Varela, by M. Oltmans.

† Note communicated by M. Marchena.

‡ Official Reports quoted by Ledru. The fanega is 100 pounds in weight.

§ Viagero. Universal, tom. XI. p. 227.

of them preferred death to slavery, and killed themselves and their children. It is in this manner that the population of the Canaries had suffered considerably by the commerce of slaves, by the rapine of pirates, and particularly by a continued slaughter at the time that Alonzo de Lugo made a conquest of them. Such of the Guanches as remained, perished in 1494, in the famous plague called *modorra*, which was attributed to the number of dead bodies left by the Spaniards exposed to the air after the battle of Laguna. This fine nation of Guanches was almost extinct at the commencement of the seventeenth century; a few old men only were found at Candelaria and Guimar. At this time, there does not exist throughout the Archipelago one native of the *pure race*. Some Canarian families boast of their relationship to the last shepherd king of Guimar; but these pretensions do not rest on very solid foundations; they are occasionally renewed, whenever a man more tawny than his neighbours is anxious to solicit the rank of officer in the service of the king of Spain.*

Manners of this people.

The Guanches, celebrated for their tall figure, and often conspicuous for fine fair hair, have furnished excellent subjects for the pen of historians discontented with the age; and a short time after the discovery of America, they were fond of celebrating the generous virtues of the Guanches, as they have in our time extolled the innocent mildness of the islanders of Otaheite, or as Tacitus has traced his seducing account of the Germans. In fact, if the Guanches offer some physical analogy with the colossal aborigines of ancient Germany, they appear to have resembled, in some respects, the Otaheitans. We see them all oppressed by the yoke of a feudal government. Among the Guanches, this institution, which facilitates and perpetuates wars, was sanctioned by religion. The priests said to the people—"The great spirit, *Achamas*, first created the nobles, the

* A. de Humboldt, Voyage, tom. I. p. 190.

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*Achimenceys*,* to whom he has given all the she-goats existing in the world. He afterwards created the common people, the *Achicaxnas*; this younger race had the insolence also to demand she-goats, but the Supreme Being answered that the people were designed to serve the nobles, and that they had no occasion for any property. The *faycas*, or great priest, exercised the right of ennobling; and one law provided, that every Achimencey who should demean himself by milking a goat with his own hands; should lose his titles of nobility. This law does not savour much of the simplicity of manners of the Homeric age.

Mummies of the Guanches.

The mummies of this nation, seen in the cabinets of Europe, are brought from sepulchral caverns cut in the rock, on the eastern declivity of the Peak of Teneriffe. The ancient Guanches, after having deposited in these catacombs a sufficient number of bodies, took the precaution of shutting the entrance; and it is asserted that the knowledge of these burial places was a secret transmitted exclusively to certain families.† These mummies, at present very rare in the Canaries themselves, are in so extraordinary a state of dryness, that the entire body, covered with its integuments, does not often weigh more than six or seven pounds; that is, a third less than the skeleton of an individual of the same size, recently cleared of its muscles. The cranium, in its form, has some resemblance to that of the white race of the ancient Egyptians; and the incisor teeth are blunted among the Guanches, as in the mummies found on the borders of the Nile. But this form of teeth is due to art alone; and, on a careful examination of the physiognomy of the ancient Canarians, skilful anatomists‡ have observed in the zygomatic bones, and in the lower jaw, very sensible differences from the Egyptian mummies. On opening those of the Guanches, remains

* Or Achamanacres. The word recalls to our memory the family of the Achémenides in Persia, and the Atamans, or chiefs of the Tartar hordes.

† Milbert, t. I. p. 59. ‡ Blumenbach, Decas Cranior, t. V. p. 7.

of aromatic plants are found, among which is constantly observed the *Chenopodium ambrosioides:* the bodies are often ornamented with fillets, to which are suspended small disks of baked earth, that appear to have been used as numerical signs, and resemble the *quippos* of the Peruvians, Mexicans, and Chinese.*

Guanche language.

The sole remains likely to throw some light on the origin of the Guanches, is their language; but unfortunately, not more than one hundred and fifty words remain, many of which express the same objects, according to the dialect of different islands. Besides these words, many precious fragments exist in the denominations of a great number of hamlets, hills, and valleys.

It was long thought that the language of the Guanches did not present any analogy with the living languages; but since the voyage of Hornemann, and the ingenious researches of MM. Marsden and Venture, have fixed the attention of learned men on the *Berbers* or *Shillouks*, who occupy an immense tract of land in Northern Africa, many Guanche words have been discovered having roots common with the *chilla* and *gebali* dialects.†

If this analogy does not prove a common origin, it at least points out some ancient connexion between the Guanches and the Berbers, in whom they find restored the Numidians, Getulians, and Garamantes.

Saint Brandon Island.

To the west of the Canary Islands, a tradition much propagated, but very obscure, places an island called *Saint Brandon* or *Saint Borondon.* It is even pretended that it was visible from the shores of the Isle Palma. A holy bishop had conducted thither a colony of Christians, at the time of the irruption of the Moors into Spain. These traditions may be the consequence of those optical illusions, by which the image of one coast re-appears in the clouds. Perhaps also some sub-marine volcano, existing

* Viera y Clavijo, noticias, t. I. p. 175.

† The following are a few examples: *Tigo*, heaven; in Berbee, *tigot. Aho*, milk; in B. *aeho. Tomasen*, bailey; in B. *tomzeen. Tumoganteen*, houses; in B. *tigameen. Carianas*, a basket; in B. *carian. Aënum*, water; in B. *anan.* See Mithridates. by Adelung and Vater, t. III. p. 60.

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to the west of the Canaries, occasionally causes the sides of its crater to appear and disappear.

In passing before the group of rocks called the *Salvages*, or Savage Isles, we arrive, after a sail of eighty marine-leagues, at the Island of Madeira which, with that of Porto-Santo, and some other desert islets, forms a distinct group. The Portuguese, who are masters of it, not long ago gave to England the right of garrisoning it.*

Island of Madeira.

The mountainous land of Madeira rises from every part towards a chain of mountains, the summit of which is called *Pico Ruivo*, 5068 feet in height. On the summit is a cavity, called by the inhabitants *Val*, which appears to be the mouth of an ancient crater; and this is an idea confirmed by the lavas, for the most part light and of a bluish colour, dispersed in various directions, broken pieces of which the sea occasionally carries into the southern bays; but no pumice-stone is found; and there is no other trace in the island of any thing volcanic. It is, however, frequently subject to earthquakes. The constituent parts of the mountains are principally quartz and granular schistus; the clefts contain iron and ochre. M. Rathke, a Danish naturalist, brought from this island some native lead, enclosed in a soft lava. The coast is generally steep and difficult of access; the waves dash against it with violence.

Mountains.

Climate and seasons.

The climate is soft, temperate, and very agreeable; there is almost perpetual spring. During the cold season the thermometer is generally from 65° to 60° of Fahrenheit;† it seldom falls to 55.° During summer it is generally between 66° and 76°. The hot winds blowing from the coast of Africa generally raise it from 90° to 95°. This high degree of heat soon gives way, and is succeeded by storms. The north-east wind prevails in the interior of the island. On the southern coast, there is a soft breeze from the east in the morning, during nine months of the year, which shifts to the west towards noon. In the evening and during the night it is succeeded by a land wind or by calms. The autumnal equinox brings with it strong

* Comp. A. Humboldt's Isothermal table. † In 1801, and 1807.

southerly winds, which afterwards alternate till the end of the year with west winds, often stormy. The rains that fall between the month of November and the end of February, are neither violent nor considerable: in the course of seven years, there were 462 rainy days.* The natural moisture of the earth is maintained by the snow, which covers the highest mountains during a considerable part of the year, and by the clouds that envelop the tops during the day, and descend into the valleys at sun-set, disappearing again at day-break.

The island abounds in springs, and is watered by several small rivers descending from the mountains, and often forming in the clefts very picturesque cascades: water is poured by those over the stony soil of the gardens and vineyards, by means of dikes and pits, under the inspection of particular officers.

Trees.

The abundance of wood with which it was formerly covered gave it the name of *Madeira* (timber.) To facilitate its extirpation, it was set on fire, and continued to burn during a period of seven years. At this time, the gardens and orchards display a great variety of fruit trees, European as well as those from the tropics. But the forests, consisting chiefly of chesnut and walnut trees, are only found on the higher sides of the mountains. The cedar, cypress, ironwood, and several species of laurel, are found here; among the latter may be enumerated the *Laurus indica*, affording the mahogany of Madeira. Higher up pines grow; but the highest points present only stunted shrubs and bramble bushes, that supply the want of wood for fuel. The fields are covered with broom, cytisus, myrtles, Indian fig, euphorbias, rasp bushes, rose-trees, jasmin, water lemon,† mock privet, and dragon-trees.‡

Sugar canes.

The *sugar* of Madeira was formerly much esteemed for its violet odour and aromatic flavour; at the present pe-

* Heberden, Philos. Trans. vol. XLVII. p. 357, 358. vol. XLVIII. p. 617.

† Passiflora laurifolia, L. ‡ Sloane, p, 9—14. Banks, Forster.

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riod, they prepare only a small quantity of molasses and syrup. The cultivation of the sugar-cane has given way altogether to that of the vine, which in fact constitutes the wealth of the island. The vineyards, for the watering of which much industry has been used, rise on the southern sides of the mountains, to the height of nearly two leagues. The grapes ripen in the shade of the vines, and are gathered when half dried. The precious Malmsey wine is produced from plants brought originally from Candia. According to Staunton, five hundred pipes are made annually. The other and most abundant kind, is known by the name of dry Madeira. The produce varies annually from between fifteen and twenty-five thousand pipes; the exportation amounts to twelve or fifteen thousand. Five thousand five hundred are sent to England; five thousand five hundred to the East Indies, three thousand to the West Indies, and two thousand to the United States of America, where wine of an inferior quality is purchased.* They have lately begun to cultivate the olive tree, by order of government. The corn of the island, particularly wheat and barley, is excellent; it is a produce, however, only sufficient for four months consumption. Onions, gourds, Egyptian arum, yams, and chesnuts, are the principal articles of food. The gray canary-bird is indigenous. The bees of the valleys afford an excellent honey. In the sea are found trout; albacores, a species of tunny; and an abundance of other fish. Nevertheless, during lent, and meagre days, these islanders make use of cod imported in foreign vessels.

Different productions.

Madeira contained, in 1767, a population of sixty-four thousand souls. The church registers, during a period of eight years, prove an annual increase of nine hundred and seven persons, and the deaths amount only to one in forty-nine.† In our time, Staunton has estimated its total population at eighty thousand; and Barrow at ninety thou-

Population.

* Barrow, Voyage to Cochin-china, ch. I.

† Philos. Trans. LVII. p. 461, 462.

sand. It is composed of a mixture of Portuguese, mulattoes, and negroes. The creoles are tawny, small in stature, dirty, and badly clothed. The people in general lead a miserable life, and strangers drink the greater part of the wine which they cultivate. The women, possessed of many natural advantages, are overwhelmed with troubles and fatigue, as the law prohibits the employment of negro slaves in labours of the field. Among the middling classes, morals are not very pure. The better class of people pass their indolent lives in country houses, or *quintas*, the gardens of which possess nothing attractive; they each contain a chapel; and the service is performed by a private chaplain. The only persons of real wealth are the English merchants, and Irish catholics settled in the capital. The land of the island belongs, as manorial property, to the descendants of Captains Tristan-Vaz, and Joao Gonsalves, to whom the king of Portugal gave the sovereignty, as a reward for services. It is divided politically into two governments. That of Funchal, the most fertile and populous, includes the capital of the same name, a town most agreeably situated on the southern side, at the foot of high mountains, and defended by many forts. It contains two thousand houses, and more than twelve thousand inhabitants.* In the church of the Franciscans, the window sashes are of massive silver; while the walls of another are covered with human skulls, that also constitute all the ornaments of the altar. The road-stead is not tenable in winter. The government of *Machico*, formerly fertile in sugar, and which now also produces the best malmsey wine, contains a borough of the same name, situated on the eastern coast, and having a bad open road-stead.

Town of Funchal.

The revenues of the island are not known with certainty. M. Lundby estimates the produce of the customs alone at 300,000 crusades, and, in favourable years, at 400,000. To this must be added the tithe, and the monopoly of tobacco.

Revenue.

* Lundby, a Danish traveller, says twenty thousand.

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Island of Porto-Santo.

The island of *Porto-Santo*, situated to the north-east of Madeira, was given, in 1446, to Bartholomeo Serestrello, who first colonized it. It consists only of a steep mountain, often enveloped in clouds, surrounded with low land, containing about two hundred inhabitants. The land is tolerably fertile, and produces good wine, oranges, barley, rye, and wheat. There are also many rabbits and she-goats, partridges, pigeons, and wild turtle-doves, bees affording a good honey, oxen, sheep, hogs, and even some horses and mules. The small town of the same name on the southern coast, has a tolerably good anchorage.

The Azores

Sailing westward two hundred and twenty leagues, brings us to the archipelago of the Azores, so called from the great numbers of goss-hawks (in Portuguese *Azor*,) found on it at its first discovery. They are also called *Terceiras*, after the largest among them, or *Flamandes*, *Flamengas*, after the Flemish navigators who came here almost at the same time, as the Portuguese, and who in part peopled it. The English sometimes designate them by the name of Western Islands.

General appearance.

They are situated in a line from south-west to north-east, and form three groupes. The southern, and nearest to the route pursued by vessels coming from Europe, consists of the islands *Saint Maria* and *Saint Michael*. The middle group comprehends *Terceira*, *Saint George*, *Graciosa*, *Fayal*, and *Pico*; to the north are *Flores* and *Corvo*. The air is healthy, the climate agreeable, and more mild than in the countries of Europe situated in the same latitude. The heat of summer is tempered by the sea-breezes, and the winter is characterized only by cloudy weather, by rains and winds that sometimes blow with the force of a hurricane. The cold is never so great as to render it necessary to warm the apartments. Snow and ice appear very seldom on the tops of the highest mountains. Earthquakes are the only scourges of these fortunate islands, whose volcanic nature is attested by the form of the mountains, by the craters, rents in their sides, numerous caverns, lavas, pumice stone, and cinders collected in every part.

Nature of the soil and climate.

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The coasts are generally high and steep; the soil has little depth, but is very fertile, and well watered by fresh and clear streams. Its produce and exportation consist of flax, wheat, barley, maize, millet, pulse, olives, oranges, lemons, and much good wine, that often passes for Madeira. Some time ago the produce was estimated at 34,100 pipes;* it must have increased in consequence of the demand for it in England. Woad formerly constituted an important branch of commerce; the sugar cane was also cultivated. The banana, but particularly the cedar tree, constituting the finest ornament of the forests, is found here. The hills are covered with a perpetual verdure. There are very fat oxen, many hogs, sheep, and good mules and asses.

Productions.

The sea affords a rich repast of delicate fish, small turtles, and many shell-fish, among which are two kinds of excellent oysters, called *lapas* and *cracas*. The whale-fishery, now neglected, was formerly very lucrative.

Population.

The excellent climate of the Azores is so favourable to population, that they have been able to furnish Brazil, and even the province of Alentejo, in Portugal, with inhabitants. Raynal estimates the number of inhabitants at 142,000; but, according to a more recent account, published in 1789, it was as high as 150,174.† Saint Michael, Fayal, and Graciosa, are the most populous. The inhabitants are white, with the exception of a small number of negroes employed as servants. The nobility are numerous, and possess a considerable part of the land. The inhabitants are industrious, sober, and healthy, but are unprovided with the means of education.

Exportation.

In productive years, the Azores can fit out for Brazil, Portugal, England, and other, northern nations, fifty ships laden with corn, fruit, honey, pulse, flour, salted meats, bacon, orchil, coarse linen, brandy, wine, vinegar, &c.; the absolute want, however, of a spacious, safe, and deep port, will ever prevent the commerce of these islands rising to any great extent.

* Brue, in Labat, Western Africa, vol. V. p. 235.

† Vincent Tofino, Derrotero di las costas de Espanna. Before the great earthquake, it was 300,000.

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The governor, captain-general of the nine islands, resides at Angra: he is appointed, in the first place, for the term of three years, but may be continued.

The administration of each island is under the control of one or two captain-majors, who attend to the maintenance of the police, command the militia, and inspect the receipt of the taxes. The two forts of Angra have separate commandants; in other respects, the islands are in a bad state of defence.

The churches are not highly endowed, and convents, particularly those of nuns, are few in number.

Island of Saint Michael.

*Saint-Michael*, or *San-Miguel*, the nearest to Portugal, has a surface of 15,018 geographical square miles. In 1790* its population amounted to 62,214 persons; of which number, 27,234 were males, 33,624 females, and 1256 were ecclesiastics or religious persons of both sexes.

The eastern and western coasts are bounded by high mountains. Towards the middle, the lower heights are of a conical form. Traces of volcanic eruptions are every where observed: the last took place in 1652. At this time, the craters seen on the greater number of the mountains, particularly towards the west, are converted into lakes. Naturalists admire, among others, on the eastern side, a

The valley of Furnas.

deep and very romantic valley, called *Furnas*,† which appears to be a broken down volcano. Its form is oval, and rather more than a geographical mile in circumference. High mountains, steep and covered with cedars, point out its extent. One part of this valley presents the appearance of a terrestrial paradise, while the other, being deeper, is almost entirely filled with pumice stones reduced to powder. The hollow is filled by a tolerably large lake of fresh water, and by many springs of mineral and sulphureous waters, both warm and cold. They give rise to the *Ribeira-*

* Lisbon Almanack, 1791.

† Mason, in the Philos. Trans. LXVIII. p. 1. Cordeyro, Historia das islas sujetas o Portugal, p. 146.

*Quinte*, a small river, whose smoking waters open a passage for themselves through the clefts of rocks, and towards the south-east empty themselves into the sea, where, in some places, at a considerable distance from the shore, the water may be seen to bubble with violence.

Culture and productions.

The island is in general well watered, and very fertile, but indifferently cultivated. They do not even procure an adequate proportion of mineralogical productions, such as sulphur, native sal ammoniac, marl, red oxide of iron, vitriolic earth and pumice stones. The Dutch, long ago, exported fuller's earth;* and, in the sixteenth century, there was in the vale of Furnas a manufactory of alum that furnished 4833 quintals in the space of ten years. Vegetation is in the highest state of beauty, and numerous groves diversify the landscape; the fields produce, at little expense, excellent wheat, maize, a little barley, beans, and rice in large quantity. In the gardens are raised very fine oranges, and many other fruits. The vines, planted principally upon decomposed lava, produce annually 5000 pipes of wine. The pastures are good and abundant. The vale of Furnas furnishes excellent honey; the shore, sponges, which they do not attend to; and the sea abounds in pilchards, the food of the lower classes.

The inhabitants manufacture coarse linens, to send to Brazil.

Towns.

*Punta-Delgada*, the capital of the island, with a population of 12,000 inhabitants, has a considerable trade of the productions of the country, both with Europe and America. It has, nevertheless, a bad road-stead, defended by the fort of Saint Braz. *Ribeira-Grande*, a town with 6000 inhabitants, has many looms for cloths.†

Temporary volcanic isle.

A phenomenon of great interest ought still to detain us some moments in these seas: it is the consideration of one of those volcanic isles, the summit of which is at one time above the waters, and at another considerably below the

* Mem. econ. de Socied. de Lisboa, tom. I. 187. seq. 299. seq.

† Cordeyro, p. 144.

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surface. The sea of the Azores probably contains more than one volcanic mountain, similar to those that, in the islands, raise themselves above the surface of the waters.

Without attending to a very obscure Portuguese tradition, according to which the whole island of Corvo arose from the sea by a volcanic eruption, we shall here mention that, during the great earthquake of 1757, which destroyed the island of St. George, with 1500 persons, or a seventh of its population, eighteen small islands, according to several authentic testimonies, although not circumstantially detailed, were seen to rise from the sea, at a distance of 200 yards from the shore.*

Its appearance in 1638.

The only sub-marine volcano, however, satisfactorily observed, is that near the Island of St. Michael. It was during a violent earthquake in 1638 that flames and puffs of smoke were seen to arise from the agitated sea. According to the report of fishermen, this vast fire was extended over a space of several acres; earthy matters and masses of rock were seen tossed into the air, and falling again into the sea, upon which they floated; some of them were raised to a height of sixty fathoms: by degrees all these masses were re-united, covering a space of three leagues in length, and half a league in breadth. These eruptions continued during three weeks: all these rocks, raised above the sea, are then said to have disappeared without a trace being left.† The fishermen, witnesses of this catastrophe, took fragments of the rocks ejected from the sea; they burst with a noise, and left nothing but a blackish gravel: these then were scoria and volcanic tuff. The crater of the volcano had afforded shelter to great numbers of fish: It was the ordinary rendezvous of the island fishermen; and, at the time of the eruption, the sea ejected so many dead fish that the air became infected by them.

* Madrid Mercury, Dec. 1757.

† Cordeyro, p. 140. Kircher, Mund. Subterr. t. I. lib. II. cap. 12. p. 82. Gassendus, de Vitâ Epicuri, t. II. p. 1050.

We must here notice a circumstance, of little importance in itself, but which, in its consequences, may become of the greatest interest in natural history and physical geography. The authorities we have already quoted, agree in fixing the period of this memorable eruption to the year 1638. Nevertheless, Buffon affirms that this occurrence took place in 1628; he rests on the authority of Mandelslo, a famous navigator: yet, in looking into the original German edition of Mandelslo's account, published by Olearius in 1658, nothing is to be found on the subject of this eruption: it is the same in the Dutch translation. The passage quoted and transcribed by Buffon is only to be found in the French translation by Wiquefort, (Paris, 1678,) and in the English one, in Harris's collection,) London, 1705); it was natural to reject an opinion so feebly supported:* but if, nevertheless, by a chance not without example, this opinion should be found confirmed by some new testimony; if Gassendi and Kircher were deceived in substituting 1638 for 1628, the three known eruptions of this volcano, namely, that of which we have been treating, and those of 1720 and 1811, will be found at a distance from each other of from ninety-one to ninety-two years; which will allow of our considering this volcano as being subject to a *regular period.* So curious a result merits a farther examination of the true date of the eruption of the seventeenth century.

Remarks on the date of this phenomenon.

Whatever may be the real nature of this chronological question, the date of the eruption of 1720 is well established. It was in the month of November of this year, that, after a violent earthquake, an island resembling a conical mountain was observed to ascend between the islands of St. Michael and Terceira: it emitted flame, cinders, and pumice stones: a torrent of burning lava ran down its steep sides: it became as large as a marine league in circumference, and was visible at a distance of eight or ten leagues. It soon, however, began to sink, and, in the

Appearance in 1720.

* Raspe, Insul. hist. nat. cap. 2. § 26, 27.

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month of November, 1723, had disappeared altogether. The soundings gave eighty fathoms even in the spot where it had appeared. Many detailed, unvaried, and authentic accounts are given respecting the appearance of this island;* the appearance on the spot has even been drawn;† so that it is difficult to raise any doubt of the reality of the occurrence. This, however, has been attempted by a learned Spanish hydrographer: he maintains that this pretended island was nothing but a collection of scoria and pumice stones, thrown out that same year from the Peak of the Azores, the Peak of Camarinhas, (in the island of Saint Michael,) and other volcanoes of this archipelago, carried along and re-united by the marine currents.‡ But the height of the island, and the appearance drawn, sufficiently refute these ideas. It will only remain to examine whether this island existed in the same situation with that of 1628 or 1638: there are accounts that place it much farther in the sea.

Appearance of 1811.

The same uncertainty prevails respecting the volcanic island that rose in these seas in the month of July, 1811. The reports of navigators, eye-witnesses, forcibly describe the terrors produced in them by this physical revolution:—the sea boiling, a column of fire, smoke, and ashes thrown up into the air; the destruction of a part of the island of St. Michael; dead fish; and the waves covered with pumice stones. But the volcanic island appeared to the *south-east* of the great island, which does not appear to agree with the position of the volcanic island of 1720. An English captain, who was present at the rise of this island, assigns to it three miles of circumference,—gives it the name of *Sabrina*, and took possession of it as of an *English discovery*; the sea, however, has already swallowed up this new British possession.

* Atkin's Voyage, (London, 1735,) p. 28. De Montagnac, Mém. de l'Acad. des Sciences de Paris, 1722, p. 12. Codronchi, Comment. Bonon. I. 205.

† Philos. Transact. 1722, vol. XXXII. p. 100.

‡ Vincent Tofino, Derrotero, p. 219.

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Saint Maria, the farthest to the south-west of all, and one of the smallest, contains only 12.000 inhabitants. The land, very high towards the east, descends a little towards the west. Marble is extracted, and an argillaceous earth that makes very fine pottery. It also possesses a species of Guinea sea-bird, called *garajaô*. Corn, wine, cattle, lime, and pottery, are exported. *Villa-de-Santa-Maria* is the capital. To the north-east of this island, at a distance of five miles, are found the *Formigas*, a group of small inhabited isles and rocks, that may probably belong to the summit of a sub-marine mountain.

Saint Maria Island.

The coast of *Terceira* is in general high, and in part inaccessible. Although the soil does not appear to be volcanic, it has nevertheless been recently subject to earthquakes. A very formidable volcano even was formed in 1760.* The vegetable soil is otherwise deeper than in the other Azores, and extremely fertile: Some forests also of cedars, chesnut and mulberry trees; orchards of fine lemon, orange, and apple trees, are also found. The wine of the country is indifferent, but the fields are well cultivated, and produce a considerable quantity of corn for exportation. The feeding of cattle, favoured by excellent pastures, is more extensive than in the other Azores: the cheese also, and hams, of Terceira, are in repute. The sea abounds in anchovies, goldneys, graylings, perch, barbel, and other more rare fish. The fishing is facilitated by the shallow water near the shore.

Terceira Island.

Soil and productions.

The population amounts to 28,900 persons. Industrious and sober, the inhabitants of Terceira still retain an ancient reputation for courage, which they have merited, by maintaining to the last extremity, the independence of the Portuguese name against Spanish usurpation, and by shaking off this odious yoke as soon as the elevation of the house of Braganza was known to them.†

Inhabitants.

* Hebbe, Account of Fayal Island, etc. Stockholm, 1804.

† Cordeyro, Historia insulana, p. 353—405. De Sousa, Hist. de la Casa-Réal, etc. t. VII. p. 177.

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Angra, the capital, contains more than a third of the population. It is the seat of the ecclesiastical, civil, and military authorities of the whole archipelago. The inhabitants export in their own vessels corn, flax, linen, and wine. Angra is also the common resort of Portuguese vessels going to Brazil and the Indies.

St. George island.

The island of *Saint-George*, or *Saô-Jorge*, between the islands Graciosa and Pico, is high without being mountainous. In the south, there are vineyards, the produce of which is preferred to the other wines of the Azores,* and excellent pastures. Besides the advantages enjoyed by the other Azores, it possesses an abundance of wood, even timber for building, and the best water. Its population exceeds 11,000 souls.

Graciosa island.

*Graciosa*, one of the smallest, is situated north-west of Terceira. The enchanting appearance of its three mountains, seen from the south-west, the great fertility of its soil, and the very peculiar salubrity of its climate, have procured for it the fine name it bears. It produces corn, pulse, potherbs, fruits, wine, brandy, butter, and cheese; but it is without fire-wood. Its population is 7315 souls.

Fayal island.

*Fayal*, the most western of the central group, has more than 16,000 inhabitants. Lofty and steep rocks bound the coast in almost every direction. The land, irregular and covered with a rich verdure, rises towards the middle of the island, where the mountains, ranged in a circle, surround a deep valley a league in breadth.

Valley called the Chaudière.

It is called *a Caldeira*, or the Caldron, and is believed, with some degree of probability, to owe its origin to the sinking of a volcano. A third of its extent is occupied by a lake, in which are united the springs of many running waters. The finest meadows and delightful groves that deck the borders of this lake, and extend along the gentle declivity of the hills, vary the situation, and form an enchanting residence.

* Hebbe, work above quoted.

The climate of the island is in general delightful and very healthy; the soil is so fertile as frequently to yield two harvests of wheat and maize. In the gardens and orchards, the potato, recently introduced, grows by the side of lemon and orange trees; but there are few vineyards, and their produce is of indifferent quality. The wines, known in commerce by the name of *Fayal*, are brought here from Pico.* Tufts of ash, of tall beech,† and chesnut trees crown the heights; but myrtle bushes, and other ever-green shrubs, generally predominate.

Climate and productions.

The inhabitants are remarkable for the goodness and mildness of their character, the simplicity of their manners, and honesty in their dealings.

*Villa-da-Orta*, the capital of the island, sometimes called by mistake Fayal, has a population of 4000 persons. It is only a large village, built in the form of an amphitheatre, on a spacious bay, affording tolerably good anchorage. Around the bay, forests of lemon and orange-trees cover the sides of the hills as far as the eye can reach. It is the market for all the productions of Fayal and Pico islands, and the centre of a considerable commerce. There are French, English, Spanish, and American consuls. *Pico*, very close to Fayal, is the largest of the Azores, after Saint-Michael; but it has a population of only 21,000. The western part presents only an assemblage of mountains, surmounted by the *Pico*, an ancient volcano, from which the island takes its name; and which rises, near the coast, to a height of 1250 toises:‡ in clear weather it may be seen at sea at a distance of thirty-four marine leagues. At its summit, generally enveloped in clouds, or covered with snow, is found a crater that constantly emits smoke.§ Lower down, large caverns are found, from the roofs of which much water drops.

Towns.

Volcano, or Peak of the Azores.

* Hebbe, Account of the Island of Fayal. (In Swed.)

† The beech trees, in Portuguese *fayas*, have given to the island its name.

‡ Tofino, Derrotero, p. 225. Zach. Eph. Géog. t. II. p. 395. Other observations state its height at 1431 toises. A. de Humboldt, Voyage historique, I, 93.

§ Herbert, in Harris's Collection, vol. I. p. 469. Cordeyro and Hebbe.

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Verdure begins to appear: by degrees forests succeed to bramble-bushes; and pastures of aromatic plants allure the cattle. At last, the lower elevations, where the inhabitants have covered the stones and lava with earth, partly bought at Fayal, and transported with great pains to these heights, prove what labour and human perseverance can accomplish, even in a contest with nature. Excellent vineyards, sheltered by walls against the winds from the sea, here occupy a great extent of land.

Productions.

The eastern part of the island is low, level, and fertile; nevertheless it is with difficulty that a sufficient quantity of corn is raised to supply half its inhabitants; and the poor derive the principal part of their subsistence from yams, that are in great abundance. All the fruits likewise, of the south of Europe, grow abundantly, and of excellent quality. Wine, however, constitutes the greatest riches of the island. It produces, according to the season, from 15 to 30,000 pipes. There are two principal kinds of wine.—the malmsey *(vino passado)* is equal to Madeira wine, of which, however, a small quantity only is made; the other, *(vino seco,)* varies much in its goodness. The vintage time is in the beginning of September, a period of holidays and continual mirth, that brings together a third of the population of Fayal. The wines of Pico are carried principally to Brazil, to the United States, England, a part also to Holland, to the North, and to Angola. The forests, principally consisting of cedars, produce also many yew-trees, the wood of which is in much request for cabinet-work, and was formerly a monopoly of the crown. The inhabitants of Pico are famous for the beauty of their forms, their vivacity, and their fondness for industry and cleanliness. They are principally like those of Fayal, descendants of the Flemish colonies conducted by Jobst de Hurter, father-in-law of the celebrated geographer Martin Behaim.*

Origin of the inhabitants.

* M. de Murr, Martin Behaim's diplomatic history, p. 23—27. The same, Journal for a history of the Arts, vol. VI. p. 8. 18 and 28. In German.

Flores Island.

The Island of Flores, situated north-west of Fayal, is steep along the coast, mountainous in the interior, covered with a thin bed of earth, and well watered by clear streams, that form several fine cascades. Exempt from earthquakes, it is, nevertheless, subject to violent winds, that often destroy the hopes of the husbandman. Forests of large cedars embellish the mountains; the plains produce wheat, rye, yams, and *yuncas*, a tuberous root, the flour of which, mixed with rye, makes a good bread; the rocks of the coast are covered with orchil, that is not gathered without danger. The vine is not cultivated, and maize does not succeed. The breeding of sheep and fowls occupy much attention. More than three thousand inhabitants are employed in the manufacturing of woollen stuffs.

Corvo Island.

*Corvo*, the smallest of the Azores, as well as the most northern, is sometimes included with the preceding island, under the general name of *Os Corvos*. Colder than that of Flores, it abounds in excellent wheat, pulse, yams, flax, cattle, and cedar wood. Its population amounts only to seven or eight hundred individuals, who have every thing in common. In this way they partake with each other of the milk of their herds, the wood that they are allowed to cut, and the wool of their flocks, of which they make coarse stuffs. There are some anchorages along the coast, and at the northern and southern extremity of the island are two mountains, one of which encloses, in a hollow on its summit, a lake of fresh water. It has been asserted, without proof, and even without probability, that the island owes its origin to a sub-marine volcano.

We shall not conclude this description of the Azores, collected from pure and authentic sources, without acquainting our readers that we have discussed in another part of this summary,* several questions relative to the history of the discovery of these islands; we have adopted the opinion that they had been visited at least a century before the Portuguese imagined they had discovered them. Not only do

* In the History of Geography, *passim*.

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the descriptions of Arabian geographers clearly point out other islands besides the Canaries,* but the Azores appear on manuscript charts even of the fourteenth century. The name of one of them, *Bentufla*, appears to us to be Arabian, and we have considered the Moors of Spain as the first authors of the discovery. Benincosa's chart of 1476 appears to prove that the name *Bentufla* is only an Arabic corruption of the Spanish, or Italian word *Ventura*; a circumstance that assigns to Europeans the honour of the first discovery.† No new light has appeared to guide us in these obscure matters.

* Hartman, Africa Edrisi, p. 314. and 315.

† Letter from M. Auguste de Staël Holstein, to the author of the Articles designed to be inserted in the Annales des Voyages, and at present in the Minerva.

*Table of the principal geographical positions of Africa, with the exception of Egypt.*



| Names of Places. | Lat. N. | Long. E. from Paris. | Sources and Authorities. |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Coasts of the Mediterranean.* | deg. min. sec. | deg. min. sec. | |
| Cape Razal . . . . | 33 4 0 | 19 27 43 | Bureau des Longitudes, dans la Connaiss. des Temps. |
| Tripoli (city) . . . | 32 53 40 | 11 1 7 | The same. |
| Cape Bon . . . . . | 37 3 45 | 8 48 15 | M. Chabert. Chart of the Mediterranean by M. Lapie. |
| Tunis (city) . . . . | 36 37 0 | 7 46 48 | Wurm. |
| Idem . . . . . | 36 43 0 | 7 44 0 | Conn. des Temps. |
| North Cape Blanco . | 37 22 30 | 7 23 15 | Chabert. Lapie. |
| Cape Serrat . . . . | 37 9 30 | 6 48 40 | Idem. Idem. |
| Cape Tedeles . . . | 36 57 0 | 1 53 48 | Conn. des Temps. |
| Algiers (city) . . . | 36 48 36 | 0 41 5 | Idem. |
| Idem . . . . . | 36 49 30 | 1 8 0 | De Grandpre. |
| | | Long. W. | |
| Oran (the castle) . . | 35 44 27 | 2 59 45 | Tofino. |
| Melilla . . . . . | 35 18 15 | 5 17 35 | Idem. |
| Cape Tres Forcas . . | 35 27 55 | 5 17 25 | Idem. |
| Ceuta (the town) . . | 35 48 50 | 7 36 24 | Conn. des Temps. |
| Idem (Mont del Acho) | 35 54 4 | 7 36 30 | Idem. |
| Tangier, (city) . . . | 35 46 30 | 8 18 40 | Wurm. |
| WESTERN COASTS. | | | |
| Cape Spartel . . . | 35 48 40 | 8 14 25 | Vincent Tofino. |
| Idem . . . . . | Idem. | 8 13 25 | Conn. des Temps. |
| Idem . . . . . | 36 45 0 | 8 17 12 | Requisite Tables. |
| Rabat (entry of river) | 34 5 0 | 9 3 0 | Borda and Desoteaux. |
| Fedal (island) . . . | 33 47 0 | 9 30 45 | Fleurieu. |
| Cape Lantin . . . . | 32 33 0 | 11 31 0 | Borda. |
| Saffy (town) N. point . | 32 22 0 | 11 30 0 | Idem. |
| Idem, S. point . . . | 32 12 0 | 11 29 0 | Idem. |
| Mogador (island) . . | 31 27 0 | 11 50 0 | Fleurieu, Borda, etc. |
| Cape Geer . . . . | 30 38 0 | 12 12 0 | |
| Cape Boyador . . . | 26 12 30 | 16 47 0 | Borda. |
| Cape Barbas . . . . | 22 15 30 | 19 0 0 | Idem. |
| Cape Blanco . . . . | 20 55 30 | 19 30 0 | Idem. |
| Point of Barbary . . | 15 53 0 | 18 51 30 | Idem.* |
| Cape Verd, the Mamelons | 14 43 45 | 19 50 45 | Idem, calculee par L. Bureau D. L. |
| Idem . . . . . | 14 46 7 | 19 52 57 | Voyages of Fleurieu, Borda, etc. |
| Idem, N. W. point . . | 14 47 13 | 19 53 16 | Requisite Tables. |

* Young, an English Captain, found it exactly the same in 1774.

*Table—continued.*

| Names of Places. | Lat. N. | Long. W. from Paris. | Sources and Authorities. |
|---|---|---|---|
| | deg. min. sec. | deg. min. sec. | |
| Island of Goree - - - | 14 40 10 | 19 4 0 | Requisite Tables. |
| Idem - - - - - - | 14 39 0 | 19 44 53 | Captain Hallowell, by chronometer. |
| Cape St. Maria (Gambia) | 13 23 0 | . . . | Captain Billinge. |
| Entrance of Rio Nunnez, S. point - - - - | 10 30 0 | 16 18 0 | Wesley & MacClure. |
| Idolos or Loss Islands (anchorage of the eastern Island) - - - - - | 9 27 0 | 15 36 0 | Pontevez Gien. for the lat. Woodville, for the long.* |
| Cape Sierra Leone - - | 8 30 0 | 14 53 47 | Captain Young, 1774. |
| Idem - - - - - - | 8 29 0 | 15 32 0 | Officers of the English sloop Argo, in 1802. |
| Idem - - - - - - | 8 29 30 | 15 29 17 | Requisite Tables. |
| Cape St. Anne - - - | 7 7 30 | 14 42 0 | Idem. |
| Cape Mesurado - - - | 6 27 0 | 12 53 0 | Officers of the Ocean, vessel belonging to the India Company, in 1802. |
| Great Sestre - - - - | 4 39 0 | 10 31 0 | Royal Charlotte, India Company's ship, in 1793, by chronometer. |
| Cape Palmas - - - - | 4 30 0 | 10 1 0 | Captain Young. Requisite Tables. Royal Charlotte. |
| Cape Apollonia - - - | 4 59 12 | 5 30 11 | Requisite Tables. |
| Cape Three Points - - | 4 40 30 | 5 3 32 | Idem. |
| St. George della Mina - | 5 1 33 | 4 20 12 | Idem. |
| Quitta (the fort) - - | 5 49 0 | 1 16 30 | Hallowell, by chronometer. |
| Whidah (the road) - - | 6 14 0 | 0 15 0 Long. E. | Idem. |
| Cape Formoso - - - | 4 13 0 | . . . | Captain Matthew. |
| Fernando Po Island (north-west bay) - | 3 23 0 | 5 16 0 | Oriental Navigator.† |
| Prince's Island - - - | 1 37 0 | 5 20 0 | Conn. des Temps. |
| Idem - - - - - - | Idem. | 5 7 0 | Oriental Navigator.‡ |
| Island St. Thomas - - | 0 27 0 | 4 23 0 | The Argo, for the lat. |

* Woodville came from Sierra Leone, a distance of twenty-three miles, where he rectified his longitude.

† This work, communicated to us by our learned friend, M. Langles, cites manuscript observations and charts.

‡ It is known that the ship Glatton has found the longitude more westerly.

*Table of Geographical Positions continued.*

| Names of Places. | Lat. S. | Long. W. from Paris. | Sources and Authorities. |
|---|---|---|---|
| | deg. min. sec. | deg. min. sec. | |
| Annabona (the road) | 1 25 0 | 3 25 0 | Don Varelo, 1779. The India ship Queen, in 1796. |
| Cape Lopez - - - - | 0 50 0 | 6 20 0 | Oriental Navigator.* |
| Idem - - - - - - | 0 56 0 | 5 44 0 | De Grandpre.† |
| Cape Yomba - - - - | 3 30 0 | 3 6 0 | Oriental Navigator. |
| Malemba - - - - - | 5 22 0 | 9 54 0 | Idem. |
| Cape Padraon - - - | 6 11 0 | 10 5 0 | Captain Wood, in 1793, the latit. |
| Ambriz Bay - - - - | 7 53 0 | 10 58 0 | Oriental Navigator. |
| Idem - - - - - - | 7 5 0 | 10 44 0 | De Grandpre. |
| St. Paul de Loanda - | 8 50 0 | 11 26 0 | Dalzel for the latit. Oriental Navigator for the longitude. |
| St. Philip de Benguela | 12 29 0 | 11 6 30 | Capt. Heywood, 1811. |
| Cape Negro - - - - | 16 3 0 | 9 34 0 | Idem. |
| Cape Sierra - - - - | 21 53 51 | 12 20 0 | Oriental Navigator. |
| Walvich Bay - - - | 22 53 57 | 12 25 0 | Idem. |
| Porto de Ilheo - - - | 23 30 0 | 12 29 0 | Idem. |
| Angra Pequena - - - | 26 36 50 | 12 56 30 | Idem. |
| Cape of Good Hope - | 34 23 40 | 16 12 10 | Observations of la Caille, Mason, Dixon, Heywood, etc. |
| Idem (the town) - - | 33 55 15 | 16 3 45 | La Caille. |
| Idem - - - - - - | 34 29 0 | - - - | Requisite Tables. |
| Cape Laguillas - - - | 34 57 0 | 17 58 0 | Oriental Navigator. |
| EASTERN COAST. | | | |
| Cape St. Blaise - - - | 34 10 0 | 19 58 0 | Lieut. W. Rice, 1797. |
| Algoa Bay, S. point - | 34 1 0 | 24 20 0 | Idem. |
| Port Natal, S. point - | 29 55 0 | 29 8 0 | Ship from China, by chronometer. Oriental Navigator. |
| Cape St. Maria, (Delagoa Bay) - - - - - | 25 58 0 | 30 55 0 | Captain D. Iuverarity, 1802, from lunar observations. |
| Cape Corrientes or Comants - - - - - | 24 1 30 | 33 31 30 | Idem. |
| Bay of Inhambane - - | 23 47 0 | 33 32 0 | Idem. |

* The longitude is concluded from that of Annabon, St. Thomas, etc. etc.

† This combined position is still further confirmed by Captain Flinders.

*Table of Geographical Positions continued.*

| Names of Places. | Lat. S. | Long. W. from Paris | Sources and Authorities. |
|---|---|---|---|
| | deg. min. sec. | deg. min. sec. | |
| Bassas de India - - - | 22 28 0 | 38 31 0 | Spears and D. Scott, 1804. |
| Sofala (the fort) - - | 20 15 15 | 32 25 0 | The ship India, lunar observations, 1802. |
| Quilimancy or Cuama river - - - - - | 18 15 0 | 35 0 0 | According to Mannevillette. |
| Idem - - - - - - | 18 10 0 | 35 10 0 | Oriental Navigator. |
| Mafameda - - - - | 16 21 30 | 38 5 30 | Captain Huddart, in 1784, by chronometer. |
| Mozambique (the fort) | 15 9 0 | 38 26 0 | Weatherhead, and other English officers, 1809. |
| Idem - - - - - - | 15 15 0 | 37 56 0 | Epid. Colin. Annales des Voyages. |
| Idem - - - - - - | 15 2 0 | 37 58 0 | According to Mannevillette. |
| Querimba Island - - | 12 31 0 | 38 36 0 | Portuguese chart in Salt's Voyage. |
| Cape Delgado, S. point | 10 9 0 | 38 41 0 | Oriental Navigator, and the chart above cited. |
| Quiloa Island - - - | 8 27 0 | 37 21 0 | Oriental Navigator. |
| Zanzibar { N. point - | 5 40 0 | 37 53 0 | Idem. |
| Zanzibar { S.E. point - | 6 26 0 | 38 2 0 | Idem. |
| Mombaza (port) - - | 4 4 0 | 38 12 0 | Idem. |
| Formosa Bay { N. point - | 3 0 0 | 39 11 0 | Idem. |
| Formosa Bay { S. point - - | 2 39 0 | 39 28 0 | Idem. |
| Juba (village) - - - | 0 12 0 | 41 8 0 | Idem. |
| | Lat. N. | | |
| Berua or Brava - - - | 1 10 0 | 42 20 0 | Idem. |
| Magadaxo - - - - | 2 6 0 | 43 10 0 | Idem. |
| Cape Bassas - - - - | 4 57 0 | 45 45 0 | Idem. |
| Cape Orfui or Hafoun - | 10 30 30 | 49 1 0 | Capt. Weatherhead, Butler, Moffat, etc. |
| Cape Guardafui - - - | 11 50 0 | 49 10 35 | Idem. |
| Socotora, (Tamarida Bay) | 12 30 0 | 51 31 0 | Oriental Navigator. |
| Idem - - - - - - | Idem. | 51 3 30 | Captain Tait. |
| Zeila - - - - - - | 11 18 33 | 40 45 0 | Sir H. Popham's chart, doubtful. |
| Perim Island or Babelmandeb - - - - | 12 35 30 | 41 8 0 | Moffat and Popham. |

*Table of Geographical Positions continued.*

| Names of Places. | Lat. N. | Long. W. from Paris. | Sources and Authorities. |
|---|---|---|---|
| | deg.min.sec. | deg.min.sec. | |
| Amphila Bay (the anchorage,) | 14 42 40 | 38 42 30 | Salt and Weatherhead, by chronometer. |
| Dahalac Island, South point | 15 32 30 | 37 55 0 | Capt. Court, 1804. |
| Arkiko | 15 34 45 | 37 17 15 | Salt, R. Stuart, &c. |
| Port Mornington (the entrance) | 13 14 0 | 36 12 0 | Capt. Court, Charts of Lord Valentia's Voyage. |
| Souaquen | 19 4 38 | 35 12 0 | Idem. |
| Cape Razal Gedid | 22 7 0 | 34 51 0 | Expedition of Sir H. Popham. |
| *Eastern Islands.* | | | |
| MADAGASCAR. | Lat. S. | Long. E. | |
| Cape Ambre | 12 2 0 | 47 31 0 | According to Mannevillette. |
| Idem | Idem. | 47 5 0 | Captain Stephens, in 1803, from 200 lunar observations, and by chronometer. |
| Nosse (ancherage) | 13 12 0 | 47 53 15 | Ann. des Voyages. |
| Passandava (city) | 13 45 0 | 46 3 0 | Capt. D. Inverarity. |
| Sancasse Island (Naranda bay) | 14 31 0 | 45 25 0 | Idem. |
| Road of Mourangaye | 15 3 0 | . . . . . | Ann. des Voyages. |
| Bay Bombetoc, (entrance) | 15 43 0 | 44 3 0 | Idem. |
| Idem (port) | 16 25 0 | 44 35 0 | De Mannevillette. |
| Cape Table | 15 43 0 | 43 46 0 | Capt. Inverarity. |
| Chesterfield Entrance | 16 20 10 | 41 47 45 | Mr. Hall Gower, from numerous lunar observations. |
| Jean de Nova Island | 17 2 45 | 40 45 35 | Different observers.* |
| Mouroundava Bay | 21 10 0 | 42 40 0 | Idem.† |
| St. Augutin Bay | 23 36 25 | 41 43 0 | Idem, Oriental Navigator. |
| Idem | 23 23 0 | 41 34 0 | Ann. des Voyages. |

* According to numerous recent observations, Jean de Nova is the same as the Island of St. Christopher.

† Probably by mistake of the copyist, as it is marked in the *Annales des Voyages*, 20° 10′ N.

*Table of Geographical Positions continued.*

| Names of Places. | Lat. S. | Long. E. from Paris. | Sources and Authorities. |
|---|---|---|---|
| | deg. min. sec. | deg. min. sec. | |
| Cape St. Mary . . . | 25 42 0 | 42 55 0 | Orient. Navigator. |
| Idem . . . . . | 25 40 30 | 43 4 0 | De Mannevillette. |
| Fort Dauphin . . . | 25 5 0 | 44 52 0 | Idem. |
| Idem . . . . . | 25 1 4 | 44 18 0 | Orient. Navigator.* |
| Bay St. Lucia . . . | 24 44 0 | 45 35 0 | Lislet Geoffroy. Annales des Voyages. |
| Tamatave . . . . | 18 12 0 | 47 20 0 | Orient. Navigator. |
| Foulpoint . . . . . | 17 40 14 | 47 33 0 | Conn. des Temps. |
| Idem . . . . . | Idem. | 47 32 30 | Requisite Tables. |
| Ibrahim, or St. Mary Island, N. E. point . | 16 33 0 | 47 57 0 | Orient. Navigator. |
| Bay Anton-Gil, (the point) | 15 27 0 | 48 4 0 | Ann. des Voyages. |
| Port Louquez (entrance) | 12 43 0 | 47 35 0 | Orient. Navigator.† |
| COMORA ISLES, SEYCHELLES, &c. | | | |
| Great Comora (anchorage N. W.) . . . . . | 11 18 0 | 40 56 0 | Orient. Navigator. |
| Mohilla (E. anchorage) | 12 22 0 | 41 49 0 | Idem. |
| Joanna (the peak) . . | 12 15 0 | 42 14 0 | Idem. |
| Idem (south point) . . | 12 27 30 | 42 14 30 | Idem. |
| Mayotta (Valentine peak) | 12 54 0 | 42 57 0 | Idem. |
| Alphonso Isle . . . | 7 3 31 | 50 0 30 | Capt. Inverarity. |
| Cosmoledo Group . . | 9 50 0 | 46 0 0 | Orient. Navigator. |
| Galega Isle‡ . . . . | 10 25 30 | 54 18 48 | Officers of the Clorinda, &c. in 1811. |
| Coetivy Isle . . . . | 7 12 0 | 54 13 0 | M. de Coetivy. |
| Platte Isle . . . . | 5 51 0 | 53 11 0 | Orient. Navigator.‖ |
| Maria-Louisa Isle . . | 6 12 0 | 52 19 0 | Idem. |
| Mahe Isle (N. E. side) | 4 38 0 | 53 15 0 | Idem. |
| Praslin Isle . . . . | 4 19 0 | 53 26 30 | Idem. |
| Chagos, or Diego Garcia Isle . . . . . | 7 29 0 | 70 7 0 | Capt. Heywood and Blair. |
| THE MASCARENHAS. | | | |
| Isle of France (Port Louis) . . . . . | 20 9 39 | 55 9 15 | De Mannevillette and Flinders, mean. |

* A mean taken between De Mannevillette and several English observers.

† The English longitudes appear to be too westerly.

‡ It is inhabited by the captain of a French privateer and some negroes.

‖ These positions result from the mean taken between several English and French observations.

## *Table of Geographical Positions continued.*

| Names of Places. | Lat. S. | Long. E. from Paris. | Sources and Authorities. |
|---|---|---|---|
| | deg. min. sec. | deg. min. sec. | |
| Bourbon (St. Denis) . | 20 51 30 | 53 7 30 | De Mannevillette. |
| Rodriguez (the centre) | 19 41 0 | 60 50 0 | Idem. |
| Island Cargados, or Garajos* . . . . . | 16 28 0 | 57 11 0 | Frigate La Semillante. |
| ISLANDS OF THE SOUTHERN OCEAN. | | | |
| Amsterdam . . . . | 37 51 0 | 75 27 0 | Orient. Nav. Mean of several observations.† |
| Saint-Paul . . . . | 38 42 0 | 75 28 0 | Idem. |
| Kerguelens Land (Capt. Bligh) . . . . . | 48 29 30 | 66 18 45 | Captain Cook. |
| Idem (Cape Louis) . . | 49 3 0 | 66 0 0 | Idem. |
| Prince Edward's Island | 46 40 0 | 35 46 0 | Idem. |
| Marion Island . . . | 46 52 0 | 35 16 0 | Idem. |
| Bouvet Island, or Cape Circumcision‡ . . . | 54 20 0 | 4 3 0 | The Ships Swan and Otter, in 1808. |
| | | Long. W. | |
| Tristan d'Acunha (principal Island) . . . | 37 6 9 | 14 12 0 | Captain Heywood. |
| Gough Island . . . . | 40 19 0 | 11 54 0 | Orient. Navigator. |
| WESTERN ISLANDS. | | | |
| St. Helena (James Town) | 15 55 0 | 7 56 30 | Capt. Horsburgh.◊ |
| Idem . . . . . | Idem. | 8 9 0 | Maskelyne, in 1761. |
| Idem . . . . . | Idem. | 8 3 30 | Requisite Tables. |
| Ascension . . . . . | 7 55 30 | 16 35 30 | A great number of chronometrical observations. |
| Idem . . . . . | Idem. | 16 41 15 | Requisite Tables. |
| Idem . . . . . | Idem. | 16 19 0 | La Caille. |
| St. Matthew . . . . | 1 53 0 | 9 43 0 | Ephemerides of Coimbra.‖ |

* It is at present inhabited by a small number of French and other families.

† The Oriental Navigator, like most of the English writers, apply to the Island of Amsterdam what belongs to the Island of St. Paul. and *vice versa*. The Requisite Tables give their names in their true and original sense.

‡ The difference of four degrees of longitude is too trifling in this latitude, and in so strong a sea, to admit of any doubt of the identity of this island with the Cape Circumcision of Lozier de Bouvet.

◊ The Oriental Navigator asserts, that this longitude, determined by thirty-two series of lunar distances, is regarded as the most accurate.

‖ See page 465.

*Table of Geographical Positions continued.*

| Names of Places. | Lat. N. | | | Long. W. from Paris. | | | Sources and Authorities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| CAPE VERD ISLAND. | deg. | min. | sec. | deg. | min. | sec. | |
| Sal Island, N. W. point | 16 | 50 | 0 | 25 | 16 | 0 | Capt. Keilor, in 1782. |
| Bonavista, (English road-stead) | 16 | 4 | 35 | 25 | 10 | 15 | Fleurieu, Heywood. |
| Mayo, (Eng. road.) | 15 | 6 | 0 | 25 | 32 | 19 | Fleurieu. |
| San-Yago, (anchorage of Port Praya) | 14 | 53 | 40 | 25 | 50 | 35 | Mean. Oriental Navigator. |
| Fuego (the peak) | 14 | 56 | 0 | 26 | 44 | 3 | Idem. |
| Brava (western road) | 14 | 50 | 58 | 27 | 5 | 55 | Fleurieu, corrected. Orient. Navig. |
| St. Nicholas, S. E. point | 16 | 25 | 0 | 26 | 30 | 0 | Capt. Keilor, &c. |
| St. Antonio, N. W. point | 17 | 12 | 0 | 27 | 32 | 47 | Idem. |
| CANARY ISLANDS. | | | | | | | |
| Lancerota (Naos Harbour) | 23 | 58 | 30 | 15 | 53 | 0 | Borda. |
| Alegranza (islet) | 29 | 25 | 30 | 15 | 51 | 0 | Idem. |
| Fortaventura (port Handia) | 28 | 4 | 0 | 16 | 51 | 30 | Idem. |
| Lobos (islet) | 28 | 45 | 0 | 16 | 9 | 0 | Idem. |
| Great Canary, N. E. point | 28 | 13 | 0 | 17 | 55 | 0 | Idem. |
| Idem, south point | 27 | 45 | 0 | 17 | 58 | 30 | Idem. |
| Idem, west point | 28 | 1 | 20 | 18 | 11 | 0 | Idem. |
| Teneriffe (the peak) | 28 | 17 | 0 | 19 | 0 | 0 | Idem. |
| Idem (idem) | Idem. | | | 19 | 5 | 35 | Requisite Tables. |
| Idem (idem) | Idem. | | | 18 | 43 | 0 | Dalrymple, by chronometer. |
| Idem (Mole de Santa-Cruz) | 28 | 27 | 30 | 18 | 36 | 30 | La Peyrouse. |
| Idem | Idem. | | | 18 | 33 | 5 | A. de Humboldt. |
| Idem | 28 | 28 | 30 | 18 | 37 | 0 | Conn. des Temps. |
| Idem (Orotava) | 28 | 25 | 0 | 18 | 55 | 0 | Borda. |
| Gomera (the port) | 28 | 5 | 40 | 19 | 28 | 0 | Idem. |
| Palma (Sainte-Croix) | 28 | 42 | 30 | 20 | 7 | 0 | Idem. |
| Ferro, or Fer Island (town of Valverde) | 27 | 47 | 20 | 20 | 17 | 0 | Idem. |
| Idem, west point | 27 | 44 | 0 | 20 | 20 | 0 | Idem.* |

* It is probable, however, that the Island of Ferro is placed some minutes too far to the east, and that its centre is twenty degrees west of Paris, or under the ancient first meridian.

*Table of Geographical Positions, continued.*

| Names of Places. | Lat. N. | Long. W. from Paris. | Sources and Authorities. |
|---|---|---|---|
| THE MADEIRAS. | deg. min. sec. | deg. min. sec. | |
| The Salvages, or Savages | 30 8 30 | 18 15 0 | Borda. |
| Idem . . . . . | . . . | 18 8 0 | English India Ship. |
| Madeira (Funchal) . . | 32 37 40 | 19 15 24 | Capt. Flinders, 1801. |
| Porto-Santo . . . . | 33 3 0 | 18 37 30 | Conn. des Temps. |
| THE AZORES. | | | |
| Formigas (rocks) . . | 37 15 50 | 27 14 18 | Fleurieu and Tofino, combined. |
| St. Maria, S. E. point | 36 56 47 | 27 26 0 | Idem. |
| Idem, idem . . . . | Idem. | 27 38 45 | Conn. des Temps. |
| Idem, S. W. point . . | 37 57 31 | 27 34 18 | Fleurieu, Tofino. |
| St. Miguel, E. point . | 37 48 10 | 27 33 20 | Idem. |
| Idem, idem . . . . | Idem. | 27 42 22 | Conn. des Temps. |
| Idem (Punta Delgada) | 37 45 10 | 28 4 30 | Fleurieu, Tofino. |
| Terceira (Mount Brazil) | 38 38 33 | 29 32 48 | Idem. |
| Idem, idem . . . . | Idem. | 29 43 40 | Conn. des Temps. |
| St. George, S. E. point | 38 29 0 | 30 10 42 | Fleurieu, Tofino. |
| Graciosa, S. E. point . | 39 0 0 | 30 18 0 | Idem. |
| Pico (the peak) . . . | 38 26 15 | 30 48 15 | Idem. |
| Fayal, S. E. point . . | 38 30 12 | 31 1 52 | Idem. |
| Idem, idem . . . . | Idem. | 31 12 48 | Conn. des Temps. |
| Flores, N. point . . | 39 33 29 | 32 28 30 | Tofino. |
| Idem, idem . . . . | Idem. | 33 26 34 | Fleurieu. |
| Idem, idem . . . . | Idem. | 33 31 0 | Sir H. Popham. |
| Corvo, S. point . . . | 39 41 13 | 33 23 0 | Tofino. |

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